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THE

MODERN PART

OF AN

Universal History,

FROM THE

Earliest Accounts to the Present Time.

Compiled from

ORIGINAL AUTHORS.

By the AUTHORS of the ANCIENT PART.

VOL. XXXVII.

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THE CONCLUSION OF THE MODERN PART OF Universal History.

CHAP. I. *Continued.*

Of ASIA.

SECT. VII.

Of Perſia.

THE ancient Perſian monarchy reached from the mouth of the river Indus in the ſouth-eaſt, to the Helleſpont in the ſouth-weſt, which was two thouſand eight hundred Engliſh miles in length; and from the Black Sea to the mouth of the Arabian Gulf, or Red Sea, which was two thouſand miles in breadth. It alſo comprehended Egypt, part of Ethiopia and Lybia in Africa, the iſlands in the Ægean Sea, with Thracia and Macedonia in Europe. But it muſt be obſerved, that Egypt was then reckoned part of Aſia, and that what the Perſians had in Europe could not be properly called their poſſeſſion, having enjoyed it only during the time of invaſions, while they made war againſt the Greeks. The Parthians, long after them, eſtabliſhed a new empire, which reached ſometimes from the river Indus to the Euphrates,

Ancient extent of Perſia.

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phrates, and ſometimes as far as the Helleſpont, or the ſtreight of the Dardanelles; the iſland of Taprobana, now Ceylon, on the coaſt of the Mogul empire, was alſo tributary to them, and they poſſeſſed in Africa, Egypt, Lybia, and as far as the frontiers of Ethiopia.

Origin of its name.

Some derive the name of this country from Perſis, one of its chief provinces, ſo called from Perſeus, a Greek, who ſubdued the country, and gave it his own name. The poets make him the ſon of Jupiter and Danaë, and conqueror of all the Eaſt. Others derive its name from Paras, or Pharas, which ſignifies *a horſeman*, becauſe Cyrus taught the Perſians the uſe of horſemanſhip, and publiſhed an edict, ordering all men to travel on horſeback, though their journies were ever ſo ſhort. This country is called Elam in the Old Teſtament, and the inhabitants Elamites, from Elam the ſon of Shem, who is ſaid to have firſt planted it after the flood. The Greeks and Romans uſed the modern name of Perſia, and all European nations do the ſame, with ſome variation in the termination; but the Turks and Perſians call this country Agem.

Preſent boundaries, extent, climate, and air.

Perſia, at preſent, is bounded on the north by part of Ruſſia, the Caſpian Sea, and the country of the Uſbeck and independent Tartars; on the eaſt by the Mogul empire, from which a ridge of mountains and the river Indus divide it; on the ſouth it has the Arabian Sea, which is part of the ocean and the Perſian Gulf; and on the weſt it has Georgia and Aran, or ancient Armenia, from which the rivers Kar and Aros part it; alſo, the rivers Tigris and Euphrates, which ſeparate it from the Turkiſh empire in Aſia. Its greateſt extent from ſouth to north is about 19 deg. from 25 deg. 40 min. to 44 deg. 40 min. that is, one thouſand one hundred and forty Engliſh miles; and its greateſt extent from eaſt to weſt is about one thouſand two hundred and eighty miles, though in many parts it is much narrower, eſpecially towards the north, where, on the weſt, it contains but a narrow track of land between Turkey and the Caſpian Sea; and on the eaſt it is alſo pent up between the ſame ſea and the country of the Tartars. It is ſituated under the fourth, fifth, and ſix climates; whence the longeſt day in the north is fifteen hours and ſome minutes, and in the ſouth thirteen hours and forty-five minutes; and the temperature of the air is therefore various, according to the different provinces. In the province of Edzerbaijan, or Aiderbeitzan, the capital of which is Tauris, to the ſouth of Armenia or Aran, the

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the air is very cold, and yet very healthy; but in Tabriſtan, or Maſanderan, to the ſouth of the Caſpian Sea, is very unwholeſome. The country here is marſhy, and abounds with an infinite number of inſects, which dying when the marſhes are dried up in ſummer, infect the air with poiſonous exhalations; there are beſides ſo many fetid waters in this province, that, by often overflowing part of the country, they occaſion the inhabitants to have an earthy complexion. Shah Abas tranſported twenty thouſand Armenian families into Tabriſtan, in order to people and cultivate it; but few of them withſtood the inſalubrity of the country, which is notwithſtanding very fruitful. The air is not better in the province of Ghilan, which lies to the north-weſt of Tabriſtan; and, indeed, is ſo bad in both, that it is cuſtomary to aſk, when any perſon is appointed governor of either, whether he is guilty of robbery or murder, that he ſhould be ſent thither? The province of Perſian Irac, of which Iſpahan is the capital, and which lies about the middle of the kingdom, enjoys ſix months hot, and ſix month's cold weather, though lying between the 31ſt and 36th deg. of north latitude. It ſnows there four or five times in the ſeaſon, and ſometimes in ſuch quantities that it is impoſſible to find the roads. At about a league's diſtance from Iſpahan, there is a ſtone three or four foot high; and when the ſnow happens to cover the ground to that height, it is a ſign of a plentiful year. The firſt peaſant that carries the news of it to court, receives a reward of a hundred tomans, about two hundred and thirty pounds ſterling. It rains here very ſeldom, except in April, when the ſhowers are ſometimes pretty heavy. In the ſouthern provinces, eſpecially along the ſea-coaſt, the air is ſo exceſſive hot and ſultry, that it is very dangerous, and even mortal to Europeans, particularly to ſuch as are not temperate in eating and drinking.

Generally ſpeaking, the ſoil in Perſia cannot be much commended; for though ſome parts are fruitful, others are perfectly barren, being mountainous and ſandy. By reaſon of the ſcarcity of rivers, there is only rain and diſſolved ſnow for watering the land; and theſe falling from the mountains in ſmall brooks and rivulets, render the vallies fertile. Here their corn ripens exceedingly, and in ſome parts they have a three-fold crop in a year. At Iſpahan they have almoſt all kinds of the choiceſt European fruits, but fairer and better; and, by the dryneſs of the air, they keep a whole year. The melons are excellent, *Soil, produce, &c.*

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and not dangerous as in Europe; their apricots delicious, and their peaches large and good. They have nine or ten ſorts of very good grapes, which yield good wine, chiefly white; for the red wines do not keep ſo well, except that of Shiras, which is excellent in its kind, and ſtomachical. They have few trees but what grow in their gardens, and of theſe the palm-tree is the moſt carefully cultivated. When young, and before it bears fruit, they dig on one ſide of it eight or ten fathom deep in the earth, till they find water; then the hole is filled up with pigeon's dung, of which they have always great proviſion, from the vaſt number of tame pigeons, kept chiefly for the ſake of their dung, which ſerves both to manure the ground, and make hot-beds for raiſing melons.

Culture of the palm-tree.

It is ſaid, that if they did not take that courſe with the palm-trees, they would not bear good fruit. But there is beſides ſomething very curious to be obſerved in the cultivating of this tree, which is, their taking every year, when the palm-trees are in bloſſom, the bloſſoms of the male palm-tree, and putting two or three bunches of them into the matrix of each female, when they begin to blow. If this was not done, they would produce dates with only ſkin and ſtone without any pulp. The matrix is that bud which contains the flowers, from which, in proceſs of time, the dates are formed. The time of making this impregnation is about the end of November; not but that the male palm-trees alſo bear fruit, but being good for nothing, they therefore take all their bloſſoms for impregnating the female. As to the dates, it will not be improper to obſerve, that the uſe of them is very dangerous during the heats of ſummer, becauſe they make the whole body break out in blotches and boils, and ſpoil the ſight. Perſia alſo produces all ſorts of our culinary herbs, plants, roots, and pulſe; it has good ſtore of cattle, eſpecially oxen, and abounds particularly with poultry and game. The Perſian bread is generally very thin, white, and good, and commonly cheap enough. Their horſes are the fineſt in all the Eaſt; they are higher than the Engliſh ſaddle-horſes, ſtraight before, a ſmall head, legs wonderfully ſlender and finely proportioned, mighty gentle, good travellers, very light and ſprightly, and doing good ſervice till they are eighteen or twenty years old. The fine horſes are valued from ninety to four hundred and fifty pounds ſterling; but the great numbers of them ſold into Turkey and the Indies, though none can be carried out of the kingdom without a ſpecial licence from the king, is what

Perſian horſes, mules, aſſes, camels.

makes

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makes them ſo dear. Their mules are next in requeſt; they pace well, never fall, and are ſeldom tired: the higheſt price of a mule is about forty-five pounds. Their Arabian breed of aſſes are the beſt in the world; they have ſmooth ſhining hair; they carry their heads lofty; their feet are light, and they move them gracefully. Some of them are valued at twenty pounds, being kept for riding, and their maſters love them for their lightneſs and eaſy going. Their beaſts of burden are, the common aſs, like ours, ſlow and heavy; and camels, of which there are two ſorts, northern and ſouthern. The latter, much the ſmaller, carry but ſeven hundred weight; the other can carry one thouſand three hundred. Both are profitable to their maſters, as coſting little or nothing to keep. They travel without halter or reins, grazing on the road from time to time, notwithſtanding their load. They ſhed their hair ſo clean in the ſpring, that they look like ſcalded ſwine, but then they are pitched over to keep the flies from ſtinging them. The camels hair is the moſt profitable fleece of all the tame beaſts; fine ſtuffs are made of it, and, in Europe, hats with a mixture of a little beaver. The Perſians take notice when the camel is in love to increaſe his load, otherwiſe he would be ungovernable.

Metals and minerals.

As Perſia is very mountainous, it is full of metals and minerals, which they began to work upon in the laſt century much more than in preceding times. Their diligence in this reſpect was owing to the great ſhah Abas. The metals uſually to be met with, are iron, ſteel, braſs, and lead. No gold or ſilver have yet been found, though it ſhould ſeem impoſſible that ſo many mountains, which produce moſt ſorts of metals, with ſulphur and ſaltpetre, ſhould not likewiſe produce the more precious metals; but the Perſians are too ſlothful to make any diſcoveries. Minerals and mineral waters abound throughout Perſia; ſulphur and ſaltpetre are extracted out of the mountain of Damavend, which ſeparates Tabriſtan from Irac.

Wild beaſts and inſects.

Wild beaſts are not very common in Perſia, becauſe there are few foreſts; but in all woody countries, as in Hircania, now called Tabriſtan, there are abundance of lions, bears, tigers, leopards, porcupines, wild boars, and wolves; but the laſt not ſo numerous as any of the other ſpecies. There is a beaſt, called chacal, ſeen almoſt every where; it roars hideouſly, and is very greedy after dead bodies, which it digs up, unleſs ſome perſon is ſet to watch the graves. There are but few inſects in this country, which may be aſcribed to the drought of the climate. In ſome

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provinces, however, there is an infinite number of graſhoppers, which are ſeen flying along like clouds, and ſo thick, that the air is darkened by them: and, in ſome parts, there are large black ſcorpions, which are ſo venemous, that thoſe who are ſtung by them die in five hours. In ſome parts alſo, birds of a prodigious length are met with, being an ell long, and in ſhape reſembling a toad, with a rough ſkin, and hard as that of a ſea-dog. It is reported, that they ſometimes fall on men and kill them. The ſouthern provinces are infeſted with gnats, ſome with long legs, like thoſe we call midges; and ſome white, and as ſmall as fleas, which make no buzzing, but ſting ſuddenly, and ſo ſmartly, that the ſting is like the prick of a needle. Among the creeping inſects, there is a long ſquare worm, which they call hazarpag, or a thouſand feet, becauſe its whole body is covered with feet; it crawls very faſt, and its bite is dangerous, and even mortal, when it gets into one's ears.

Diviſion of Perſia. Perſia is divided into the following provinces;

I. Schirwan, which is the moſt northern province of Perſia, and lies along the weſtern coaſt of the Caſpian Sea. It has part of Muſcovy, or Georgia, on the north; the river Kur (the Cyrus of the ancients) parts it from the province of Erivan; and the Kur and Aras (the Araxes of the ancients) ſeparate it from Aiderbeitzan. It is a cold, but healthy country; the ſoil, however, is obſerved to be extraordinary fruitful, yielding rice, wheat, barley, hay, and even great ſtore of vines. The chief cities in this province are,

1. Derbent, the Caſpia Clauſtra of the ancients, and ſtill the gate from Perſia into Muſcovy. It ſtands on the weſtern ſhore of the Caſpian Sea, about a hundred and fifty-ſeven miles from Teflis in Georgia, towards the ſouth-eaſt, and fills up the whole defile between the Caſpian Sea and the craggy mountains on the frontiers of Georgia. The coaſt is all a rock, which renders it dangerous for ſhipping. Upon the whole, this city, which is reckoned to be a league and a half in circumference, is conſiderable only on account of its ſtrength, being the paſſage from Ruſſia and Tartary into Perſia. The Ruſſians took it in 1723, and, by a treaty of peace concluded in 1735, it was ceded to them by the ſhah Nadir Thamas Kouli Khan. 2. Gangea, ſituated in a pleaſant plain of about thirty leagues extent, and a hundred and eighteen miles diſtant from Derbent towards the ſouth-weſt. It belongs properly to Georgia, as ſtanding on the other ſide of the river Kur. The Perſians call this place the garden

of

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of the empire, by reaſon of its being exceedingly well watered, and pleaſantly ſurrounded with groves of trees. It carries on a good trade, and on that account is much reſorted to by ſtrangers. Its bazars and market-places are very noble and magnificent. 3. Shamaki, reckoned the capital of this province, ſtands on a river which falls into the Caſpian Sea, and is about ſixty-ſix miles from Derbent towards the ſouth, and ninety-two from Gangea to the ſouth-eaſt. This city was one of the beſt and moſt populous of Perſia, before it was deſtroyed by an earthquake. It is, however, ſuppoſed to contain near ſixty thouſand inhabitants, chiefly Armenians and ſtrangers, whom the pleaſantneſs of the country and traffic have invited thither. The khan, or governor of Schirwan reſides in it, and he is reputed one of the moſt conſiderable in all Perſia, by reaſon of the great ſubſidies he generally levies upon the countries round about. 4. Baku ſtands on the weſtern part of Schirwan, upon the Caſpian Sea, eighty-two miles from Shamaki towards the ſouth-eaſt. It is fortified, and has a very fine harbour. The Ruſſians having taken it during the troubles of Perſia, it was yielded to them by the late ſhah Nadir.

II. Aiderbeitzan, or, as the Perſians call it, Azerbeyan, borders to the eaſt on the province of Ghilan and Tabriſtan; to the ſouth on Perſian Irack; to the weſt and north-weſt upon Upper Armenia, and the river Aras; and to the north on Schirwan. The etymology of the name of this province imports a country of fire, ſo called by the Perſians, on account of the temple erected in it for keeping their ſacred fire. The ſoil is fruitful, and the climate healthy, though cold. The moſt conſiderable cities are,

1. Tauris, a large and potent place, and the ſecond in Perſia for dignity, grandeur, riches, trade, and number of inhabitants. It is ſituate in a fine plain near a mountain, a hundred and ninety-two miles from Shamaki, towards the ſouth-weſt. Being near the frontiers of Turkey, it has been often taken and retaken. The Turks ſurpriſed it during the late civil wars in Perſia, and exerciſed their uſual barbarity on the inhabitants, killing an incredible number of them; but Kouli Khan reduced it under the obedience of the Perſians again, and purſued the Turks into their own territories. At the end of this city, to the weſt, upon a little mountain, ſtands a hermitage, a very neat piece of workmanſhip: they call it Ayn Haly, or the *houſe of Ali*. This caliph, whom Mo-

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hammed made his ſon-in-law, was, as the Perſians report, the moſt lovely man that ever was ſeen; ſo that when they would ſignify any thing extremely handſome, they ſay, it is Ali's eyes. The hermitage ſerves the inhabitants of Tauris for a place of devotion, and the way to it for a walk of pleaſure. Moſt modern geographers take Tauris to be the ancient and celebrated Ecbatana, ſo frequently mentioned in Scripture, and in the ancient hiſtories of Aſia. But there are no remains to be ſeen at Tauris, either of the magnificent palace of Ecbatana, where the monarchs of Aſia kept their court in ſummer, nor of that of Daniel, which was afterwards the mauſoleum for the kings of Media, of which Joſephus ſpeaks in his tenth book, and which he aſſures us was entire in his time. If, then, theſe ſtately and magnificent palaces were ſtanding ſixteen centuries ago, in the place where Tauris now ſtands, the very ruins themſelves are not now to be found; for amongſt all thoſe within the circuit of the city, none are ſeen but what are of earth, brick, or flint, which were not materials anciently made uſe of in Medea for the building of ſumptuous palaces. The government of the province of Tauris is the chief in the Perſian empire, and it is uſually annexed to the dignity of the captain-generalſhip. There is ſcarce a place of greater reſort in Aſia; and there is, perhaps, no ſort of merchandize but may be found in the magazines at Tauris. 2. Ardevil, about twenty-eight miles diſtant from Tauris to the eaſt, in a fair and ſpacious plain, ſurrounded with mountains, which occaſion continual changes of weather, in extremities of heat and cold, and ſubject the city to epidemical diſeaſes. It claims dignity among the beſt cities in Perſia, becauſe it was honoured with the reſidence of ſeveral of their kings, and is alſo the place of their burial. Shah Eidar, author of the Shai ſect, to whom the Sophian family, owed their origin, lived and died here. His ſepulchre, which is no ſmall ornament to the city, is viſited with great devotion by pilgrims. Sophi Iſmael, the firſt king of that race, is likewiſe buried here. 3. Sultania, about a hundred and thirty-five miles from Tauris, to the ſouth-eaſt. It was once the metropolis and largeſt city of Perſia, as may appear from its great ruins; but is now inconſiderable, though there are ſome public buildings in it very remarkable as well for their ſtructure as architecture. There are ſeveral other cities, and a great number of good villages in this province, but none equal to thoſe mentioned.

III. Ghilan

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III. Ghilan lies to the ſouth-weſt of the Caſpian Sea, which, with the province of Tabriſtan, bounds it on the eaſt, Perſian Irac on the ſouth, Aiderbeitzan on the weſt, and the heath of Mockan on the north. This province is exceedingly well ſituated, having on one ſide the ſea, along which it lies in form of a creſcent, and on the other high mountains, by which it is ſo well ſeparated from all the reſt of Perſia, that there is no entrance to it on the land-ſide, but by very narrow paſſes, which can be very eaſily defended. Theſe mountains towards Perſia are nothing but frightful ruins and precipices; but towards the province of Ghilan they have a moſt delightful deſcent, being covered with all ſorts of fruit-trees. The country of Ghilan is the fineſt and moſt fruitful of all Perſia. It is watered by ſeveral fine rivers, which ſpring on all ſides from the mountains. The ſea on the coaſt abounds with fiſh, as do alſo the rivers that fall into it; and to ſuch a degree, that the farming out the privilege of fiſhing there, brings in a very conſiderable revenue to the king. The cities in Ghilan are Reſht, or Raſcht, Keſker, and Aſtara. The firſt wants nothing that can render a city agreeable, rich, and beautiful.

IV. Tabriſtan has the Caſpian Sea on the north, Ghilan on the weſt, Perſian Irak on the ſouth, and Coraſan on the eaſt. It abounds with plants, fruit, and wood; and is watered with many ſprings and rivers, but yet is not without its inconveniences; for in winter it is very cold, and the roads are exceeding bad; and in ſummer the air is ſo malignant, that moſt of the inhabitants are obliged to remove to other places. The malignancy of the air is attributed to the great number of ſerpents, and other inſects, which dying in ſummer for want of water, moſt ſprings in that ſeaſon being dried up, cauſe a corruption and infection, which fill the air with contagious vapours. All the people of this country look yellowiſh and tawny. The places of note in Tabriſtan are, Terabath, Alazanderan, Eſcriff, Chocoporo, and Amoul. The firſt is remarkable for a palace of Abas the Great, which was adorned with noble furniture and paintings, and had in its precinct delightful gardens; the laſt is a place of ſome ſtrength, having a ſtrong fair caſtle, moated round, and ſome celebrated moſques, which are held in great veneration by the people upon account of four hundred and forty-four princes and prophets who are ſaid to have been buried in them. The ridge of mountains which lie on the ſouth of theſe two provinces, and divide them from

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from Perſian Irak, is a branch of Mount Tauris, which runs eaſt and north to Tartary. The paſſage through it, in the road from Iſpahan, is ſo narrow, that a robber, in king Abas's time, kept poſſeſſion of it with his troop a long time, in ſpite of the forces the king ſent againſt him.

V. Perſian Irak, or ancient Parthia, ſo long the ſeat of empire in Aſia, is the largeſt and principal province of the Perſian monarchy. It is entirely the proper demeſne of the king, and has no governor, as moſt of the other provinces. It is bounded on the eaſt by Coraſan and Segeſtan, on the ſouth by Farſiſtan, on the ſouth-weſt by Chuſiſtan, on the weſt by Curdiſtan, on the north-weſt by Aiderbeitzan, and on the north by Ghilan and Tabriſtan; and its extent is about two hundred leagues in length, and a hundred and fifty in breadth. The air is very dry, and, in ſeveral reſpects, the moſt healthy of any in the world. The face of the country is more mountainous than level; the mountains are very bare, and ſcarce produce any thing but thiſtles and briars; but the plains are very fertile and pleaſant where there is any water. There are upwards of forty cities in this large province, which may be thought a great number, when we conſider that Perſia is not an empire peopled proportionably to its extent. The principal cities and towns here are, 1. Abher, enjoying a very delightful ſituation, with fine gardens, and ſome elegant public ſtructures. It is about twenty-ſix miles diſtant from Sultania to the ſouth-eaſt. 2. Caſbin, a large city, ſix miles in circumference, and containing twelve thouſand houſes, and one hundred thouſand inhabitants. It is ſeated in a very pleaſant plain, twenty-eight miles from Abher; one of the faireſt places to be ſeen in it is the Hippodrome, or Royal Piazza, ſeven hundred paces in length, and two hundred and fifty in breadth. Abas the Great removed his court from this city to Iſpahan, but the royal palace and gardens are ſtill kept in good order; and the Perſian grandees, from father to ſon, ſtill alſo keep poſſeſſion of their numerous palaces, by reaſon of the long reſidence from time to time of the court at this place. Moſt of our European geographers aſſert, that Caſbin is the ancient Arſacia; but the Perſian hiſtorians will not allow it to be ſo ancient. 3. Sawa, or Sava, a great city, but thinly inhabited, ſeated in a ſandy and barren plain, about eighty-eight miles from Caſbin. There is nothing remarkable in it nor its environs, except the mauſoleum or monument

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ment of the prophet Samuel, in the middle of a magnificent moſque, which ſtands four leagues to the eaſt of Sawa. The Perſians believe he was there interred, and have therefore made it one of their moſt famous places of pilgrimage and devotion. Oppoſite this moſque, or nine miles weſt of the city, are ſeen the veſtiges of the famous city of Rey, the largeſt in all Aſia. The wonders related of it are incredible. The Perſians hiſtories aſſert, that in the ninth century of Chriſtianity, the city of Rey was divided into ninety-ſix quarters, each of which contained forty-ſix ſtreets, and every ſtreet four thouſand houſes and ten moſques, beſides ſix thouſand four hundred colleges, ſixteen thouſand ſix hundred baths, fifteen thouſand towers of moſques, twelve thouſand mills, ſeventeen hundred canals, and thirteen thouſand inns. In the wars between the two ſects of Mohammedans, one of which called in the Tartars, this city was deſtroyed, towards the end of the ſixth age of the Hegira. 4. Komm, a large city, and pretty populous, containing about fifteen thouſand houſes, among which are ſome fine bazars and caravanſeras, though the trade of the place is inconſiderable. It is ſituate in a plain, by the ſide of a river, about thirty-ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of Sawa. The chief thing it is remarkable for is the moſque, in which the princeſs Fatima, Mohammed's daughter, and two kings, Abas I. and Sophi I. lie interred. Nothing can be imagined richer, neater, and more magnificent, than this moſque; the Perſians call it moſſuma, or *pure*, and hold it in great veneration. 5. Hamadan, one of the largeſt and moſt conſiderable cities in Perſia, having a good trade, and being a ſtage of caravans going to Mecca. It lies on the road to Bagdat, about ninety-five miles north-weſt of Komm. The Jews flock here in pilgrimage to viſit the tombs of Eſther and Mordecai, which they aſſert to be ſtill in this place. 6. Caſhan, a populous and wealthy city, by its manufactures of all ſorts of ſilks, ſtuffs, and tiſſues of gold and ſilver. It ſtands about ninety-eight miles north of Iſpahan, in a large plain near a high mountain, which being oppoſed to the ſouth, the reverberation of the rays of the ſun ſo furiouſly beat upon it in the ſummer, that the heat is intolerable. The bazars and baths of this place are elegant ſtructures, and the royal inn, founded by Abas the Great, in the ſuburbs, is the faireſt in all Perſia. Adjoining to it ſtands the royal palace, and oppoſite to it another, deſigned for lodging ambaſſadors. 7. Iſpahan, the capital of Perſian Irak, and now the metropolis

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tropolis of the whole Persian empire. It is situate on the banks of the river Zenderoud, in lat. 32 deg. 26 min. east longitude 52 deg. 55 min. The walls of the town are about twenty thousand paces in compass, built with mud, and kept very indifferently, though they are so hid by the adjacent houses and gardens, that one can hardly find them out. Here are also a castle and ditch. The beauty of this city consists chiefly in a great number of sumptuous palaces, handsome and airy houses, spacious caravanseras, very beautiful bazars, many canals and streets planted on both sides with lofty plane-trees; though, generally speaking, the other streets are narrow, crooked, and not paved: but the air being very dry here, and every housekeeper causing the street to be watered before his door twice a day, there is neither so much dirt nor dust as in many great cities in Europe. The Meidan Shah, or *Royal Square*, is one of the finest in the world. It is four hundred and forty paces long, and one hundred and sixty broad, and is surrounded by a canal built with bricks, cemented with a black mortar, which, in time, becomes harder than freestone. The royal mosque is at the south end of this square, and its portico is wonderfully adorned with a thousand figures, and an inconceivable profusion of gold and azure, the whole being also inlaid with enamelled squares, and a frize round it of the same materials. Few structures can equal the magnificence of this, many of its pieces and decorations being wrought in a manner unknown to our European architects. The same may be said of the royal palace, and the haram, or *women's apartment*. The palace is certainly one of the most spacious in the world, being near a league and half in compass. Its great portico stands in the royal square, and is all built of porphyry, and very high. The Persians revere it as sacred. The suburbs of Ispahan are very large, and are chiefly inhabited by Armenians, of whom an account was given under that article. There are besides one thousand four hundred and sixty villages round about Ispahan, and the inhabitants live chiefly upon the manufacturing of silk and wool. 8. Yesd, a large city, one hundred and seventy-five miles from Ispahan to the east. It has some trade and manufactures of silks and stuffs, mixed with gold and silver, and sometimes with cotton. The women of Yesd are reckoned the handsomest in all Persia.

VI. Chusistan is a pretty large province, bounded on the north by Persian Irak; on the west by Irak Arabi, or Yerak;

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Yerak; on the ſouth-weſt by the Tigris and Euphrates, a little before and after their junction; on the ſouth by the Perſian gulf; and, on the eaſt by Farſiſtan. This is the ſame country with Cuſh in Aſſyria, having preſerved its ancient name with only a Perſian termination. Its chief cities are, 1. Suſter, the ancient Suſa, and the winter-ſeat of the Perſian monarchs, as Ecbatana was their ſummer-ſeat. It is a fair and large city. 2. Ahwas. 3. Laureſtan; but both inconſiderable.

VII. Farſiſtan, ſometimes called Fars, the ancient Perſia, has Perſian Irak on the ſouth; Chuſiſtan, with part of the Perſian gulf, on the weſt; the remainder of the ſame gulf on the ſouth; and Kereſtan, with part of Segeſtan, on the eaſt. Laureſtan is included within this province, as well as the Iſle of Ormus, which are reckoned to belong to Farſiſtan, ſince they were conquered by the Perſians. The moſt remarkable places in this province, are,

1. Schiras, the capital, and reputed the next in rank after Iſpahan. It is ſeated one hundred and ſeventy-five miles from that city, in a plain, ſurrounded with craggy mountains, which are nothing but dry rocks, and neither bear tree nor weeds. The ſoil about the city is very good and fruitful, and produces the excellent wine of Schiras, ſo famous all over Perſia. There is nothing very beautiful in the city itſelf, being now almoſt half-ruined. 2. The ruins of the ancient Perſepolis, thirty-five miles north-eaſt of Schiras. This city, in ancient times, was eſteemed the chief of the Eaſt, and excelled all others in glory and worldly felicity. The wealth of it is evident by the great plunder Alexander's ſoldiers made, and by the treaſure he himſelf ſeized, which amounted to one hundred and twenty thouſand talents in ſilver and gold. The citadel, which was the king's palace, was a ſtructure of ſuch ſurpriſing magnificence and beauty, that perhaps no building ever exceeded it. The king's throne was of pure gold, adorned with pearls and precious ſtones, and the furniture of the chambers ſo exceſſively rich, that nothing could exceed it, the bedſteads being of ſolid gold, beſet with gems, and every thing elſe proportionate. But its glory did but procure its deſtruction; for, at a great feaſt Alexander held in it, Thaïs, the Athenian courtezan, propoſed to the king, then heated with wine, as a noble exploit, to burn that fine palace, which he readily agreed to, and led the way himſelf with a firebrand. Thus fell Perſepolis, which for ſeveral ages had been the ſeat of the

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the Persian monarchs, giving law to many nations, and being a long time the terror of Greece. The lofty columns still standing declare the height of the fallen roofs, and the stairs, the steps of which are thirty feet long, shew the apartments they led to were much greater than any thing we now see. A large town, now built on the place where the old city stood, is called Mirkas Chan. 3. Karscrom, about sixty-five miles from Schiras, a town of many houses, but all miserable. 4. Bender Rik, Bender Rakel, Bender Delme, and Bouchier, all maritime towns on the Persian gulf, but of little trade either by sea or land. The inhabitants are chiefly Arabs. The islands of Carac lie about west-north-west, twelve leagues from Bouchier. One of them has no inhabitants but deer and antelopes. The southernmost has between two and three hundred poor fishermen on it, who serve shipping with pilots for Bassora. The anchoring-place is at the north end of the inhabited island, in twelve fathom water. 5. Churchoir, a town on the sea-coast, twenty-one miles south of Bouchier, noted for the ruins of a large castle and pier, built by the Portuguese, who kept a garrison there, and had gallies continually cruising in the bottom of the gulf, to compel all ships to pay ten per cent. toll to them. 6. Congon, a town of pretty good trade, for most of the pearl fished for at Bahara, on the Arabian side, is brought here to market, and many fine horses are sent from hence into the Indies, where they generally sell very well. It stands on the south side of a large river, about ninety-five miles south-east from Bender Rick. 7. Lar, the capital of a province, thence called Lareستan, forty-eight miles distant from the coast of the Persian gulf to the south. This country was for some time a kingdom in the possession of the Gaures. The city is built on a rock, and has nothing worth notice in it but the khan's house, the market-place, the bazars, and the castle. In the suburbs are several houses pretty well built, amongst which is the Dutch East India house. The town contains about four thousand houses. The Jews, who are pretty numerous in it, exercise a silk-manufacture, and the other inhabitants make the best musket-barrels. 8. Congo, or Bender Congo, a little sea-port town, forty-five miles distant from Lar to the south. It once made a good figure in trade when the Portuguese were settled here, but now, it seems, is chiefly confined to some small commerce with the Banians and Moors from India. The territory of the town is of small extent, but produces excellent fruits of several

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ſeveral ſorts. 9. Gomrom, or Bender Abaſſi, which ſignifies the *Port of Abas*, being ſo called from Shah Abas the Great, who firſt brought it into vogue. It lies about ſeventy-two miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Lar, on the coaſt of Farſiſtan, juſt oppoſite the iſland of Ormus, in a very narrow ſtreight formed by that iſland, and in a very convenient haven. From a ſmall village, as it was before the reduction of Ormus, it is grown ſo conſiderable, that it may be ranked with the beſt towns in Perſia; for, though ſtill but a ſmall place, yet its convenient ſituation for trade brings a great reſort of ſhips and caravans to it. The Engliſh and Dutch factories ſupport its commerce to a great degree, and the Perſian governor who reſides here, lives in great ſplendour.

The iſland of Ormus is two leagues diſtant from the main land to the ſouthward, almoſt at the mouth of the Perſian gulf which reaches from thence to Baſſora, which is the bottom of it. An account has been already given of Ormus, under the Article of Arabia Felix. *Perſian iſlands Ormus.*

The iſland of Bahara, or Baharen, lies near the north-eaſt coaſt of Arabia Felix, in the midway between Baſſora and Ormus. The largeſt, brighteſt, roundeſt, and trueſt oriential pearls are fiſhed for here. This fiſhery begins in June, and ends with Auguſt. The profit of it is computed at one hundred and ten thouſand crowns per annum. *Bahara.*

Queſmo is a pretty large, fruitful, and well inhabited iſland. The weſt end of it is not above a league and a half from Congo, and the eaſt end about a league from Comrom. It furniſhes Ormus with wheat, barley and ſome other proviſions, where the people could not live without them. *Queſmo.*

Before we proceed, it will not be improper to add a word or two concerning the Perſian gulf, or ſea of Eleatif, as ſometimes called. It is a large bed of water lying between the coaſts of Perſia and Arabia Felix, about one hundred and ſeventy miles wide in the middle, but contracted to near a quarter of that breadth at the two extremities. It commences in the weſt, in the 49th degree of longitude eaſt of London, at the gulf of Baſſora, which is made by the mouth of the two great rivers Euphrates and Tigris united, and extends eaſtward almoſt to the 57th degree of longitude, where cape Muca, a promontory of the province of Vodanor, in Arabia Felix, by ſtretching forward to latitude 26 deg. 15 min. ſhuts it up into a mouth, not above thirty-ſix miles over, where the iſland, *Perſian gulf.*

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iſland of Ormus is ſeated, which, together with the other two iſlands above mentioned, entirely command the paſſage.

VIII. Kereſtan, or Kerman, is the ancient Caramania, and is bounded on the weſt by Farſiſtan, on the ſouth by the Perſian or Arabian Sea, on the eaſt by Mecran, and on the north by Segeſtan. The country is mountainous, and the upper-grounds barren; but the vallies are reaſonably fruitful, and yield variety of odoriferous flowers, eſpecially roſes, the diſtilled waters of which are ſold to advantage by the inhabitants at Iſpahan. The ſheep of this province bear the fineſt wool in the world, which they ſhed, after eating new graſs. This wool is chiefly manufactured in the town of Kerman, the only place of any note in this country, where alſo the beſt ſcymetars are made, and a kind of procelain, little inferior to the Chineſe. The Gaures, or ancient Perſians, inhabit this province.

IX. Makeran, or Mecran, is a ſmall province, ſituated towards the mountains, which divide Perſia from India on the eaſt, and ſurrounded with deſarts and ſandy plains. It is inhabited by the Balluches, a fierce and warlike nation.

X. Segeſtan has Coraſan on the north, part of Candahar, with Sableſtan on the eaſt, Mecran on the ſouth, and Farſiſtan on the weſt. The face of the country is for the moſt part flat, and bears a vaſt number of palm trees; but it is withal very ſandy, and ſo much expoſed to winds, that the ſand often overwhelms the houſes, and even whole villages. The road by land, from Perſia to India, lies through this country; but it is ſo barren and ſandy, that few care to venture through, but chuſe rather to go by ſea.

XI. Sableſtan has Candahar on the north, Segeſtan on the weſt, Mecran on the ſouth, and on the eaſt the high mountains which ſeparate Perſia from India. This country is watered by ſeveral rivers, ſprings, and lakes, and is full of mountains known to the ancients by the name of Paropamiſi montes. They are a branch of mount Taurus, and are all covered with foreſts. The inhabitants are rude and clowniſh.

XII. Candahar has Sableſtan on the ſouth, the Mogul empire on the eaſt, the country of Balk on the north; of which an Uſbeck Tartar is prince; on the ſouth alſo part of the Mogul empire with Segeſtan; and on the weſt, part of Coraſan. This province is very mountainous, yet produces abundantly all ſorts of proviſions that are neceſſary

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ſary for the ſubſiſtence of its inhabitants, except towards Perſia, where it is very barren. The chief city, which bears the ſame name with the province, lies about ſix hundred and ſeventy miles from Iſpahan to the eaſt. It had princes of its own for a time, who ſubſiſted on the mutual jealouſy of the two powers between which it was ſituated; but, at laſt, Shah Abbas the Great, who made as many conqueſts by his policy as arms, found a fair opportunity to engage the prince, who was maſter of it in his time, to put himſelf under his protection, which he did accordingly, on condition that a prince of his race ſhould always command in Candahar, as vaſſal and tributary to the king of Perſia. Shah Abbas, who, according to the maxim of all true politicians, was a punctual obſerver of his word, not only ſecured the poſſeſſion of Candahar to the prince who ſubmitted, but alſo continued the government of it to his ſon Alimerdan Khan, after the death of his father. Shah Sephi, grandſon of Shah Abbas, ſucceeding him, the court of Perſia changed their maxims. As Alimerdan Khan was poſſeſſed of great wealth, which he had, for moſt part, by inheritance from his anceſtors, and as he made the figure of a potent ſovereign in his government, always eating out of gold veſſels, and keeping a houſe almoſt as magnificent as the Perſian kings, the miniſters, who governed during Shah Sephi's minority, and who, by inſpiring him with violent ſuſpicions againſt ſeveral of the greateſt noblemen, had perſuaded him to put ſome of the moſt conſiderable of them to death, did not fail to raiſe the ſame jealouſy in his breaſt againſt the prince of Candahar, whoſe wealth, of which they hoped to be ſharers, tempted them more than the poſſeſſions of the others whom they had cauſed to be cut off. The difficulty was to get him to court; for the misfortune of thoſe, who, after being drawn thither in that manner, left their heads there, made him very loth to go; and he ſaw that, without regard to his remonſtrances, couriers were diſpatched to him one upon an another, with preſſing orders to repair to Iſpahan. At that time, he had two children at the court of Perſia, and he would not, perhaps, be ſo much preſſed as he was to come to Iſpahan, had it not been preſumed, that his regard for his children, who remained as hoſtages at court, would hinder him from carrying matters to extremities. But having before his eyes the example of another governor more powerful than himſelf, who was invited to court with his children, only to ſuffer death, he imagined, that inſtead of ſaving the lives

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of his two ſons, he ſhould only haſten their death with his own; and therefore choſe to take refuge with the Great Mogul, by delivering up Candahar to him. His children would undoubtedly have been cut off with him, if he had gone to Iſpahan; but the fear of exaſperating the inhabitants of the province of Candahar, and of rendering them irreconcileable by putting to death the two young lords, obliged the court of Perſia, which hoped one day or other to recover Candahar, not only to keep fair with them, but alſo to treat them with more diſtinction than ever. This policy of Shah Sephi had its effect under his ſon and ſucceſſor Abas II. for when that prince laid ſiege to Candahar, in the beginning of his reign, the Perſians, who compoſed the greater part of the army ſent by the Mogul to its relief, remembering the kind treatment of Alimerdan Khan's children at the court of Perſia, did not exert themſelves as they might have done to hinder Abas II. from making himſelf maſter of it, which he did in 1650; ſince which time, that city has always remained in the hands of the Perſians, notwithſtanding all the attempts afterwards made by the Mogul to recover it. The place is of the more importance to Perſia, becauſe it covers the frontiers towards the Indies, and is the ſtrongeſt in the whole kingdom, having been fortified by European engineers, employed there by the Mogul, while maſter of it. Its opulence is owing to its being the thoroughfare of the caravans between Perſia and the Indies; and a judgment of its wealth may be formed by the tribute paid to the king, which was twelve pound weight of gold for every day in the year, excluſive of many other duties, fines, and forfeitures.

XIII. Coraſan, including the province or kingdom of Balk, has Perſian Irak with Aſtrabad on the weſt, from which it is parted by a large deſart; Fariſtan, with Segeſtan, and another large deſart, that parts it from Kereſtan, and Candahar on the ſouth; the mogul's dominions on the eaſt and north-eaſt, and Uſbeck Tartary on the north. Hence it appears, that it is a very large province. It is very populous and fruitful, and produces the beſt manna in the world. It has a rock of turquoiſe-ſtone, ſo excellent, that the king allows none to be ſold but to himſelf. The Perſian geographers reckon thirty-two conſiderable towns in this country, four of which are royal cities, where the kings of Perſia have ſometimes reſided: theſe are Balk, Merou, Niſchabour, and Herat. The laſt is a ſtrong place, fortified by Tamerlane, and ſaid to be

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be thirteen miles in circumference. Meched, another city in this province, is very famous for a pilgrimage inſtituted here in honour of the iman Reza, by Shah Abas the Great. This he did with a political view to divert the reſort of his ſubjects to Mecca and Medina, whereby a great deal of gold was carried out of the kingdom; and, as he knew the devotion of the people is eaſily led away by external decoration, he ſpared no expence in this reſpect, even ſo far as to cover with plates of gold the moſque of this iman, who was always held in great veneration by the Perſians. This city is ſurrounded with a noble wall, whereon ſtand three hundred towers.

XIV. Aſtrabad with Khoemus, are ſeated in the north-weſt part of Perſia, having Coraſan on the eaſt, part of Tartary on the north, the Caſpian Sea on the weſt, and alſo a little on the north; Tabriſtan on the weſt, and a branch of mount Taurus, with the deſart of Segeſtan on the ſouth. It is a mountainous country, and, except near the banks of the two rivers Margah and Arias, which run through it, the ſoil is ſandy and barren; but in that part it is plain champain land, pleaſant and fruitful, and produces grapes of a wonderful bigneſs. The inhabitants are a mixture of Perſians and Tartars.

The Caſpian Sea deſcribed.

As a good part of Perſia lies upon the Caſpian Sea, it will not be improper to give here a deſcription of it. This ſea is ſo called from the Caſpii, a nation dwelling near its banks; or otherwiſe the Hyrcanian Sea, thus denominated from the province of Hyrcania, now Tabriſtan, or Mazanderan, whoſe ſhore it waſhes. It is a very large bed of water, quite ſurrounded with land, and being deſtitute of any known efflux, is therefore by ſome writers ſtyled a lake. It approaches in form to that of an oblong ſquare, the longeſt ſide of which, from north to ſouth, is about ſix hundred and forty Engliſh miles. Its greateſt breadth, from eaſt to weſt, is about three hundred and ten miles, but in many places it is much narrower. On the weſt it is bounded by the kingdom of Aſtracan, and by the provinces of Georgia and Shirwan; on the north by Ruſſian Tartary; on the eaſt by Uſbeck Tartary, and part of Aſtrabad, which laſt bounds it on the ſouth-eaſt, and partly on the ſouth, where it alſo waſhes Tabriſtan and Ghilan, which likewiſe ſurround the ſouth-weſt part of it. The Perſians call this ſea Kulſum, or otherwiſe the ſea of Baku. It receives the great river Wolga, which itſelf is like a ſea for largeneſs, and near a hundred other rivers, and yet is never increaſed or diminiſhed; nor ever obſerved to ebb and flow. This conſtant appearance has

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given riſe to many ſpeculations, and ſome think, that it muſt have a ſubterraneous coummunication with the Black Sea, or Perſian gulf, though the former is one hundred and twenty, and the latter near two hundred leagues diſtant from it. In favour of this opinion, F. Avril, a modern traveller, ſays, that near the coaſt of Ghilan, there is a mighty whirlpool in the Caſpian Sea, which, by abſorbing every thing that comes near it, there muſt be conſequently a cavity in the earth there; and that in the Perſian gulf a great quantity of willow tree leaves are found floating, though no willow trees grow any where near that gulf; whereas, great plenty of them are ſeen on the coaſt of the Caſpian Sea, whence they muſt be carried by ſubterraneous paſſages from that ſea to the gulf. Perhaps, the quantity of vapours drawn by the ſun in this hot climate, may be equal to the quantity of water this ſea receives from rivers; and thus we may account for its equal fulneſs. It was formerly very little navigated, except by Coſſac rovers, who uſed to plunder all they met; but the Ruſſians, being now maſters of a part of the coaſt, are continually ſailing from one poſt or other of it, and carry on a profitable commerce with moſt of the adjacent countries. The water of this ſea is as ſalt as any other ſea-water; and breeds a variety of good fiſh.

Hiſtory of the Perſian monarchy.

When the kingdoms of Media and Perſia were united under Cyrus the Great, in the year of the world 3419, that prince having conquered Babylonia, erected the ſecond or Perſian monarchy, upon the total ruin of the Aſſyrian empire, and thereby extended the Perſian dominions through Aſſyria, Armenia, and all Aſia Minor, to the very borders of Europe; but this monarchy continued no longer than two hundred and ſix years, in a ſucceſſion of twelve kings; the third of whom, Darius Hyſtaſpes, invaded Greece with an army of one hundred thouſand foot, and ten thouſand horſe, a force ſufficient for over-running all that country, if the virtue and bravery of the Greeks had not exceeded what could poſſibly have been expected from men. The Greeks could not get together an army of above ten thouſand men, and yet this handful of people ventured, under the conduct of Miltiades, to give the Perſians battle in the plains of Marathon, near Athens; and, with the loſs of one hundred and ninety-two men only, according to Herodotus, entirely defeated that immenſe army. Xerxes, the ſon and ſucceſſor of Darius, renewed the attempt againſt Greece, and

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and after ten years preparation, invaded it with ſo large an army, that the whole land was in a manner covered, and entire rivers drank dry by them; but this expedition did not prove more ſucceſsful; for, after the battle by land at the ſtreights of Thermopylæ, and the ſea-engagement at Salamis, Xerxes was glad to retire, and leave his general Mardonius with three hundred thouſand men, to finiſh the war; which was, indeed, ſoon after put an end to, by the entire rout of the Perſian army, at the famous battle of Platæa. About one hundred and fifty years after, Alexander, king of Macedon, invaded Aſia, fought the numerous Perſian armies, firſt, at the river Granicus, in Phrygia; ſecondly, at Iſſus, in Cilicia; and thirdly, at Arbela, in Aſſyria; in all which battles he obtained entire victories, and finally entered Babylon in triumph. Here began the third, or Grecian monarchy, which laſted, properly ſpeaking, only during the king's life.

At the grand partition of Alexander's dominions among his captains, Perſia was made part of the Syrian kingdom of Seleucus Nicanor, but did not continue long ſo; for in the reign of Antiochus Theos, the grandſon of Seleucus, the Parthians revolted under the conduct of Arſaces, a nobleman of that country, who perſuaded the neighbouring nations to join with him, and aſſumed the title of king. He was ſucceeded by a race of princes, who were potent monarchs, and oppoſed the Romans with greater vigour than any other nation. This kingdom remained thus under the Parthian government, from the year of the world 3718, to the year of Chriſt 228, when Artaxerxes, a noble Perſian, having ſlain Artabanus III. and repelled the Romans, aſcended the throne. This king is reckoned to have reſtored the ancient Perſian race, and from him began a new dynaſty, or race of kings, who in twenty-eight generations, governed this country four hundred and ſix years.

In the year 634, the Saracens, under Omar, the ſucceſſor of Mohammed, defeated Hormiſdas II. This put an end to that kingdom; ſo that Perſia became a part of the Saracen empire, and was governed by certain deputies, with the title of ſultans, under the grand caliph. In proceſs of time, the ſultans of Perſia, Babylon, &c. quarrelling among themſelves, occaſioned ſeveral revolutions and fluctuations of power, which, in the end, brought in the Turks. Tangrolipix overcame the ſultan, or king of Perſia, in the year 1030, and aſſumed the government of that country. He was ſucceeded by a race

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of Turkish princes for about two hundred years, and then a new dynasty of Tartarian princes gained the government. Haalon, the first of these, became king of Persia in the year 1260, and was succeeded by eight of his posterity till the year 1337; when, upon the death of Abusaid, the last of that house, the kingdom became divided amongst several Tartar princes, till about the year 1400, when Tamerlane reduced the whole to his obedience, and left it to his son Mirza Charock: but that family did not hold it long; for after continual feuds among themselves, in a succession of six generations, the last of them was defeated and slain in 1472, by Usum Cassan, an Armenian prince, who was, at that time, governor of Turcomania, and founded a new dynasty called the Armenian. There were five other princes of this line, the last of whom was at first successful in war against the Sophian family, who then began to make a great figure in Persia; but he was at last defeated by Ismael Sophi, the founder of the dynasty of the Sophian race, who governed Persia till within these few years.

The kings of Persia of this family pretended to be derived from Ali, who was a cousin-german to Mohammed, and his son-in-law, by marrying Fatima his daughter. Ali, succeeding Mohammed, made a very great alteration in his law; he added some things, left out others, put new glosses, and made such a reform in it, that it might pass for a new law. All these alterations occasioned a division in Mohammedanism. The greater number adhered to the law, as delivered by Mohammed, and preserved by Omar, one of his chief disciples; and the rest declared for it, as it had been corrected by Ali. Sophi, said to be descended from Ali, flourished towards the end of the fourteenth century, and was the first that rescued Ali's laws from the obscurity in which they had been buried for many ages. His grandson, Scich Eidar, preached up the same doctrine, but with a great many alterations, pretending to a revelation, that no mussulman should be saved but those who followed the doctrine of Ali, such as he explained it. His reputation was so great for sanctity and integrity of life, that Usum Cassan, who was made king of Persia, as above observed, gave him his daughter Martha in marriage. Usum Cassan, dying in 1478, was succeeded by his son Jacup, and after him by two other kings, who had reigned till the year 1490. Rustan, a young nobleman, ascended the throne, and reigned seven years. Conscious to himself of Scich Eidar's better right to the crown

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crown, and alarmed at the concourſe of people from all parts, to embrace his religion and adhere to his perſon at Ardevil, the place of his birth and reſidence, he procured him to be aſſaſſinated there; and perſecuted to ſuch a degree the new ſect he was eſtabliſhing, that ſeveral who had embraced it, abandoned it again. This Ruſtan was killed by Achmet, who, in his turn, after a reign of ſix months only, was put to death with torture by one of Ruſtan's principal officers. Hereupon, Alvante, a nobleman, the neareſt akin to Uſum Caſſan, was elected to fill the throne.

Scich Eidar, whom Ruſtan cauſed to be murdered at Ardevil, left three ſons, who would have met with the ſame fate as their father, if they had fallen into that prince's hands. The two eldeſt, who were of age to ſee their danger, fled, one into Aſia Minor, the other to Aleppo. Iſmael, the third, who was but a child, was ſaved by the care of his father's friends, who put him under the protection of a nobleman of Tabriſtan, by name Pyrchalim, a friend to their family, who was maſter of ſeveral places on the Caſpian Sea. Pyrchalim took great care of young Iſmael's education, and cauſed him to be brought up in the principles of the ſect of his father, who had been artful enough to venture in favour of Iſmael, one of thoſe predictions that never hurt thoſe for whoſe advantage they are made, and which are often a great help to them in the execution of their projects, by prepoſſeſſing the common people in their favour: in ſhort, he had foretold, that his ſon would be a great prophet and a conqueror; and that by his zeal, and by the conqueſt of a great part of the Eaſt, he would one day equal the glory of Mohammed himſelf.

As ſoon as Iſmael was grown up, and began to appear in the world, his behaviour was ſuch as could not but confirm the great hopes people had conceived of him; and by the noble indifference he ſhewed upon all occaſions for government and grandeur, he opened for himſelf a path to it, which was ſo much the ſafer as he ſeemed to be the more worthy of it: yet, as an honeſt care to recover his patrimony, was not inconſiſtent with the diſintereſtedneſs he valued himſelf upon, he made uſe of this pretence to arm a good number of his diſciples, and having reinforced them with ſome ſuccours which Pyrchalim had ſent him, he entered Armenia, where the lands lay which Uſum Caſſan had given his mother for her dowry, and took poſſeſſion of them by force of arms. This his firſt ſucceſs,

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gave his party a reputation, which increaſed daily; he next attacked the caſtle of Marmurlac, which was full of riches, and having forced and plundered it, he led his army againſt Sumach, the capital of Meſopotamia, which he alſo took, and gave the plunder to his troops. From thence he marched his army towards Tauris, then the capital of Perſia, and where Alvante, lately placed upon the throne, had his reſidence, and who fled at his approach, and retired towards Armenia. Alvante had created himſelf many enemies in Tauris by his cruelties, and was even deſtitute of the neceſſary forces for holding out a ſiege. Iſmael entered with triumph into Tauris, but ſoon purſued Alvante, in order to prevent his joining with his brother Moratcham, who was raiſing troops for him in Aſſyria towards Babylon; and having ſurpriſed him, his troops were defeated, and the king himſelf killed, fighting at the head of them. Moratcham was, in a ſhort time after, totally routed and put to flight, as he was marching to poſſeſs himſelf of Tauris. This was in the year 1499, which is reckoned the firſt of Iſmael's reign. A ſeries of victory afterwards attended his arms; he reduced Babylon, Meſopotamia, and all the neighbouring provinces to his obedience; he withſtood all the efforts of the Turks, and died in 1525, at the age of forty-five years, a quiet poſſeſſor of one of the largeſt and moſt powerful monarchies in the world, and was reputed one of the greateſt and moſt famous kings that ever ruled in the Eaſt.

From him there was a ſucceſſion of princes by the names of Thamas, Iſmael II. Mahomet Codabende, Emir Hemſe, and Iſmael III, till Abas the Great, the third ſon of Mahomet Codabende, aſcended the throne in 1585, his two brothers, Emir Hemſe, and Iſmael III. having reigned but a few months. This prince raiſed the ſplendor and power of Perſia to a very conſiderable height, and was afterwards juſtly ſtiled the reſtorer of it. He enlarged his empire on the ſide of India; on the ſouth reduced Lar and Ormus, and drove the Turks out of Armenia and Georgia, and all the conqueſts they had made on Perſia ſince the death of Iſmael I. which were at leaſt one hundred and fifty leagues in length, from north to ſouth, reckoning from Tauris to the extremities of the kingdom of Caket, at as much, or even more, in breadth from the weſtern coaſt of the Caſpian Sea, to the Black Sea; to which may be added Babylon, with all Meſopotamia and Aſſyria. But as by all thoſe great feats of arms he ſhewed himſelf an able ſoldier, he diſcovered that he

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had yet greater talents as a ſtateſman, in the meaſures he took to make himſelf abſolute in his kingdom, and to civilize it, by cruſhing the power of the petty princes, who had often ſupported one another in a total independency on the crown. He died about the cloſe of the year 1629, and was ſucceeded by his grandſon Sephi I. a cruel prince, who is ſuppoſed to have died by poiſon in 1642, after a reign of twelve years. His ſon and ſucceſſor Abas II. was very different from him, and it may be ſaid, that next to Iſmael I. and Abas the Great, Perſia never had a better king of the Sophian family. Sephi II. his eldeſt ſon, who ſucceeded him in 1666, was a prince of a cruel and yet indolent diſpoſition; he died in 1694, leaving two ſons, Huſſein and Abas, of which the former ſucceeded him in the throne.

Huſſein continued many years in the peaceable poſſeſſion of his throne, and would have died ſo, were it not for the corruption and venality of his court. Every thing being ſet to ſale in his reign, Myrr Weis, a popular nobleman, purchaſed the government of Candahar, but was ſoon after diſplaced to make room for another nobleman, who had advanced more money. Myrr Weis, hereupon becoming a malecontent, aſſembled his friends and dependents, and drove his rival out of Candahar, after which ſucceſs he began his march towards Iſpahan, the capital city, but died before he arrived there. Mahomood, his ſon, advanced with the army to Iſpahan, took the city, and ſoon after, though the king had conſented to be dethroned, and made over his crown to this Mahomood, he had him murdered and all the royal family, with the prime of the Perſian nobility, except prince Thamas, one of Huſſein's ſons, who had eſcaped and fled to the north of Perſia. Mahomood, ſome time after, in the midſt of his barbarities and exceſſes, was murdered by Eſriff, one of his officers, who uſurped the throne. Prince Thamas, having aſſembled an army, invited Nadir Kan into his ſervice, who had obtained great reputation for his valour and conduct. He was the ſon of a Perſian nobleman, on the frontiers of Uſbeck Tartary, and his uncle, who was his guardian, keeping him out of poſſeſſion of the caſtle and eſtate, which was his inheritance, he took to robbing the caravans; and having increaſed his followers to upwards of five hundred men, became the terror of that part of the country, and eſpecially of his uncle, who had ſeized his eſtate. His uncle therefore endeavoured to be reconciled to him, and invited him to the caſtle, where he was ſplendidly

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ſplendidly entertained; but he ordered his followers to cut his uncle's throat in the night-time, and turn his people out of the caſtle. Prince Thamas, by giving him the command of his army, ſoon after met with all the ſucceſs he could hope for. He defeated the uſurper Eſriff, put him to death, and recovered all the places the Turks and Ruſſians had made themſelves maſters of, during the rebellion; and then prince Thamas ſeemed to be eſtabliſhed on the throne; but Nadir Khan, to whom Thamas has given the name of Thamas Kouli Khan, that is, *the ſlave of Thamas*, thinking his ſervices not ſufficiently rewarded, and pretending that the king had a deſign againſt his life, or at leaſt to ſet him aſide, conſpired againſt his ſovereign, made him priſoner, and put him to death, as is ſuppoſed, after which he uſurped the throne, ſtyling himſelf Shah Nadir, or king Nadir.

He afterwards laid ſiege to Candahar, of which a ſon of Myrr Weis had poſſeſſed himſelf. While he lay at this ſiege, the court of the Great Mogul being diſtracted by factions, one of the parties invited Shah Nadir to come to their aſſiſtance, and betrayed the Mogul into his hands. Hereupon, having marched to Delhi, the capital of India, he ſummoned all the viceroys and governors of provinces to attend him, and bring with them all the treaſure they could raiſe, and thoſe that did not bring ſo much as he expected, he tortured and put to death. Having thus amaſſed the greateſt treaſure that ever prince was maſter of, he returned to Perſia, giving the Mogul his liberty, on condition of reſigning the provinces on the weſt ſide of the Indies to the crown of Perſia. He afterwards made a conqueſt of Uſbeck Tartary, and plundered Bochara, the capital city. Then he marched againſt the Dagiſtan Tartars, but loſt great part of his army in the mountains, without fighting. He defeated the Turks in ſeveral engagements; but laying ſiege to Bagdad, was twice compelled to raiſe the ſiege. He proceeded to change the religion of Perſia to that of Omar; hanged up the chief prieſts, put his own ſon to death, and was guilty of ſuch cruelty, that he was at length aſſaſſinated by his own relations in 1747, who have been fighting for the crown ever ſince. Of late the contending parties were reduced to two, and in the ſpring of the year 1763, Kerim Khan made himſelf maſter of all Perſia by the defeat of Fat Ali Khan. The highways were ſince ſafe, trade recovered its vigour, caravans are very frequent, and between fifteen and twenty thouſand families of that kingdom, who had retired

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retired to Bagdad, ſucceſſively return to their own country. That vaſt empire, after being ſo long rent and ravaged by a crowd of petty tyrants, ſeems now to be on the point of recovering its ancient ſplendor. At firſt Kerim Kan declined the title of king, aſſuming only in his firmans, and on his coin, that of ſabelzaman, which ſignifies *maſter of the preſent time*; but he ſince, in the month of October of the ſame year, convoked all the Perſian grandees to meet him at Iſpahan, in order to aſſiſt at his coronation at Tauris.

Government of Perſia.

Perſia is an abſolute monarchy; the king's will is law in all caſes; he judges of the lives and fortunes of his ſubjects, without regard to any other juſtice or law than his own pleaſure, and that often leads him to extravagant ſeverities. He has no eſtabliſhed council, but is adviſed by ſuch miniſters as are moſt in favour; and the reſolutions taken among the ladies in the haram frequently defeat the beſt laid deſigns. The crown is hereditary, excluding only the females; but the ſons of a daughter are allowed to inherit. The laws of Perſia exclude the blind from the throne; and this is the reaſon that the reigning prince uſually orders the eyes of all the males of the royal family, of whom he entertains any jealouſy, to be put out.

Prime miniſter.

The prime miniſter is called Attemaet Doulet, which ſignifies *the director of the empire*, and alſo Vizier Azem, or *the great ſupporter of the empire*, as he alone almoſt ſuſtains the whole weight of the kingdom. This miniſter's chief ſtudy is to pleaſe his maſter, to ſecure to himſelf an aſcendant over his mind, and to avoid whatever may give him any uneaſineſs or umbrage. With this view he never fails to flatter him, to extol him above all the princes upon earth, and to throw a thick veil over every thing that might help to open his eyes, or diſcover to him the weakneſs of the ſtate. He even takes very particular care to keep the king in utter ignorance, to hide from him, or at leaſt to ſoften all unwelcome news, and above all to exalt immoderately every the leaſt advantage he obtains over his enemies. By this ſort of policy it is that this miniſter is able to aggrandize his family, and to raiſe his friends to the firſt poſts in the empire; nor does he ever want a pretence for ruining ſome, and advancing others; and this is the eaſier for him to do, as all in employment are guilty of mal-adminiſtration. He has alſo a thouſand opportunities of ſerving thoſe in his intereſts, who give him a ſhare in their plunder, and of ſending them thoſe royal veſts, called calaat, by the officers of his houſe, who are greatly

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greatly rewarded for the same, which serves them instead of wages. The governors of provinces and cities endeavour, by underhand practices, to procure those presents of honour; nor do they spare any money to obtain them, to render their government more respectable, as none must dare complain of their misdemeanors, when they see them so much in favour at court as to obtain these robes. Thus it is, that the prime minister is in perpetual agitation to support himself, to raise some, and destroy others, according as he is actuated either by love or hatred. Yet, with all his arts and precautions, he can never be quiet in his mind; for it is impossible for him to be sure of the fidelity of any one person; those he has been kind to, being often the first to hasten his destruction, when they find that fortune has given him a shock. Infidelity and ingratitude have taken such deep root all over this country, that children make no scruple to cut off the ears, the nose, and even to cut the throat of their own parents, whenever the king commands it, and this with the base and mercenary view of possessing their posts in the government; a barbarity of which there are many instances. However, the prime ministers in Persia continue generally in their employment during life, or, if removed, are only banished to some city, where they spend the remainder of their life in a private station.

Principal officers of state.

The great officers of the state after the prime minister, are the Nadir, or grand-master of the household; the Mehter, or groom of the chamber, who is always a white eunuch; the Mir-akbor-bashe, or master of the horse; the Mir-shikar-bashe, or great huntsman and falconer; the Divan-beggi, or chief justice; there is a lieutenant of police, styled Deroga, in every town, but there may be an appeal from his sentence to the Divan-beggi: the Vackanuviez, or recorder of events, or first secretary of state; the Muslaushe-elmenalick, or master of the accounts and finances of the kingdom; the Numes-hum-bashes, or king's chief physicians; the Shick-adasi-bashe, or inspector of the palace and regulator of rank at court; and the Khans, or governors of provinces, under whom are other governors, called Soltans, appointed also by the king.

Ministers in spirituals.

The chief in spirituals is the Zedder, or great pontiff, who has the direction of all the wealth and emoluments consecrated to public worship or religious uses; under him are the Sheik el selom and Cadi, who decide all points of religion, and make all contracts, testaments, and

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and other public deeds; they are appointed by the king in all the principal towns: and next to theſe are the Pichnamas, or directors of the prayers, and the Moullahs, or doctors of the law.

The king is exceeding rich in gold, plate, and jewels of all ſorts; and his ſtore is continually increaſed by the preſents made him by the Kams or great lords, which they often repeat, eſpecially every new year's day. He has many lands, which he farms out at the rent of one fifth, third, or ſometimes half the produce. He has the monopoly of ſilk, large ſubſidies from the ſeveral companies of tradeſmen; and all eſtates confiſcated by delinquency, revert to the crown. Theſe, together with many ſmaller taxes, raiſe his revenue to the amount of eight millions of tomans per annum, each toman being worth about three pounds, ſix ſhillings, and eight pence of our money; and indeed, the charge of his army is ſo great, his ſtables are ſo largely furniſhed with fine horſes, ſome of which eat out of golden mangers; his court is ſo numerous, his equipages ſo ſumptuous, his attendants ſo many, his gardens ſo ſurpriſingly ſpacious, and ſo elegantly laid out, his wives and concubines ſo many, and in ſhort his grandeur in all reſpects of pomp and expence ſo remarkable, that it cannot be maintained with a leſs revenue. *King's riches and revenues.*

The arms of the king of Perſia are a lion couchant, looking at the ſun as it riſes over his back. His uſual title is Shah, or Patſhah, *the Diſpoſer of Kingdoms*. To his titles are alſo added thoſe of Sultan and Kham, the title of the Tartar ſovereigns. He does not ſubſcribe his name to acts of ſtate, but the grant runs in this manner, viz. "This act (or edict) is given by him whom the univerſe obeys." *His arms and titles.*

There are three ſorts of militia in Perſia, which compoſe, as it were, ſo many diſtinct armies, namely, the Kortſhies, the Goulans, and the Taſingtchies. The firſt are deſcended from an ancient, but foreign race, which have been famous on account of their courage. They encamp under tents, fight always on horſeback, are well paid and kept, and often come to be promoted to the higheſt employments. There are generally about twenty-two thouſand of them in pay. The ſecond are ſlaves, or the children of ſlaves of all nations, but particularly Georgian renegadoes; they ſerve the king very well, and alſo on horſeback; their number is about eighteen thouſand. The third are a body of infantry, to the amount of forty or fifty thouſand; they are commonly picked out of the country *Forces.*

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country from amongſt the moſt laborious and robuſt of the people.

Religion. The religion of the Perſians is the ſame in ſubſtance with that of the Turks, though no nations in the world hate one another ſo much on the account of religion as they do. The true ground of their diviſion is, that the Turks pretend, that Abubeker, was the lawful ſucceſſor of Mohammed, Omar the ſucceſſor of Abubeker, Oſman of Omar, and then Ali; whereas the Perſians aſſert, that Ali ſucceeded Mohammed, or ought to have ſucceeded him, as being his ſon-in-law, and that the reſt were but ſo many uſurpers of his right. This is the reaſon that the Turks hold the Perſians to be heretics. The Perſians farther ſay, that Ali was the firſt of the twelve imans or prieſts whom they much honour, and who ſucceeded one another, and of whom the laſt, called Mahomet Mehedi Sahabremon, or *the maſter of times*, was ſnatched out of the hands of thoſe who would have killed him, and tranſlated as Enoch and Elias were; and that he will alſo come at the day of judgment to force the world to embrace the faith of Mohammed; that Jeſus Chriſt will be his lieutenant, and will marry: for they look upon it as a great defect in his perſon, that he was not married. There is ſomething very ſingular and curious in the religion and other practices of the Gaures, who are the remains of the ancient Perſians; but we ſhall defer giving any account of them, till we examine the analogy which is ſuppoſed to be between them and the original inhabitants of Indoſtan.

Trade, manufactures, coins. The Engliſh and other nations trade with the Perſians ſeveral ways, particularly by the gulf of Ormus at Gombron, by the way of Turkey, and by the way of Ruſſia through the Caſpian Sea. Woollen manufactures are exchanged with them for raw and wrought ſilks, carpets, camblets, leather, and other manufactures of the country; but the trade is carried on in European ſhipping, the Perſians having ſcarce any ſhips of their own, and the Ruſſians having the ſole navigation of the Caſpian Sea. The trade to Perſia through Ruſſia is diſuſed at preſent, being prohibited by the court of Ruſſia, who were apprehenſive the Engliſh would teach the Perſians to build ſhips, and diſpute the navigation of the Caſpian Sea with them. There is not a richer or more profitable trade carried on any where than between Gombron and Surat in the Eaſt Indies; and the Engliſh Eaſt India company frequently let out their ſhips to tranſport the merchandize of

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the Banians and Armenians from Perſia to India; but there has been ſcarce any trade here ſince the civil wars began. The king of Perſia is the chief merchant, and he uſually employs his Armenian ſubjects to traffic for him in every part of the world. His agent muſt have the refuſal of all merchandize before his ſubjects are permitted to trade. His greateſt miniſters do not think the buſineſs of a merchant beneath them. Thus it was before the civil war commenced. The moſt current money in Perſia are the abaſſis, worth about one ſhilling and fourpence ſterling; they are of the fineſt ſilver. An abaſſi is worth two mahmoudis, a mahmoudi two ſhais, and a ſhai ten ſingle or five double caſbeghis. Theſe laſt pieces are of braſs; the other three ſorts of ſilver; for gold is not current in trade. A toman is a certain ſum of money, and no coin, worth fifty abaſſis; and in Perſia they generally reckon by tomans.

Perſons, habits, genius, tempers, &c. of the Perſians.

The Perſian blood is generally thick, as may be ſeen in the Gaures, the ancient Perſians, who are homely, ill-ſhaped, dull, and have a rough ſkin and olive complexion. The ſame is obſerved in the provinces next the Indus; but in other parts of the kingdom, the Perſian blood is now grown clearer by the mixture of the Georgian and Circaſſian; and the men are of a good ſtature, ſhape, and complexion, and the women handſome and well ſhaped, but ſtill inferior to the Georgian. The men wear large turbans on their heads, ſome of them very rich, interwoven with gold and ſilver; a veſt girt with a ſaſh, and over it a looſe garment ſomething ſhorter, with ſandals or ſlippers on their feet. The women's dreſs does not differ much from the men's, only their veſts are longer, and they wear a ſtiffened cap on their heads, and their hair looſe. The men are exceeding fond of riding, which they do every day, if it be but to a houſe in the ſame town; they wear pliant boots of yellow leather; and the furniture of their horſes is immoderately rich, their ſtirrups generally ſilver; and, whether on foot or horſeback, they wear a broad ſword and dagger in their ſaſh. They have alſo a particular paſſion for hunting, which is commonly managed by birds of prey. Their hawks are the beſt inſtructed of any in the world, and they are taught not only to fly at birds, but at hares, deer, and all manner of wild beaſts. The Perſians have been always eſteemed a brave people, of great vivacity and quick parts, lovers of learning, and their polite men are upon a level with the politeſt in Europe. They excel more in poetry than any

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any other kind of literature, and aſtrologers are in as great reputation in Perſia as the magi were formerly. Their books are all manuſcripts, the art of printing having not yet been introduced among them; but they excel in writing, and have eight ſeveral hands. They write from the right to the left like the Arabs. In a kind of ſhort hand they uſe the letters of the alphabet, and the ſame letters differently pointed will have twenty ſeveral ſignifications. They are famed for nothing more than their humanity and hoſpitality. Their greateſt foible is profuſeneſs and vanity; whence the richneſs of their cloaths, and number of their ſervants and equipage, too often exceed their revenues, and bring them into difficulties. In ſhort, they are born with as good natural parts as any other people, but few abuſe them ſo much, becoming diſſemblers, cheats, flatterers, and liars, to gratify, if poſſible, their eager bent to voluptuouſneſs and a luxurious life. They drink coffee for breakfaſt, and at eleven dine upon melons, fruit, or milk. Their chief meal is in the evening, when they uſually have a diſh of pilo, conſiſting of boiled rice, fowls, or mutton, ſo over-done, that they pull the meat in pieces with their fingers, uſing neither knives, forks, nor ſpoons. Their meat is ſeaſoned very high with ſalt and ſpices when they dreſs it; but they never ſalt up their meat, eating it the ſame day it is killed. They ſpread a cloth upon a carpet, and ſit down croſs-legged at their meals, waſhing both before and after they eat. They are frequently entertained with muſic, both vocal and inſtrumental, at their feſtivals, and girls dance to divert the company. Their uſual drink is water or ſherbet, wine being prohibited by their law; but ſeveral of them frequently break through this reſtraint, and none of them make any ſcruple of intoxicating themſelves with opium. There is no place where women are ſo ſtrictly guarded and confined as in Perſia, eſpecially in the courts or harams of their princes and great men. When the king's women remove, they are ſent away in covered litters, with a ſtrong guard; and all men are required to quit their habitations, and remove to a conſiderable diſtance from the places they paſs through, on pain of death. There is no nobility in Perſia, nor any reſpect given to a man on account of his family, except to thoſe who are of the blood of their great prophet or patriarchs; but every man is eſteemed according to the poſt he poſſeſſes; and when he is diſmiſſed, he loſes his honour, and is no longer diſtinguiſhed from the vulgar. The Arabic is the learned language of the Perſians;

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fians; the Turkiſh is uſually ſpoken at court, and in the provinces adjoining to Turkey; in other parts they generally ſpeak the Perſian tongue, which is a modern language, and much of the ſame date with their religion.

SECT. VIII.

Of Great Tartary and Aſiatic Ruſſia.

Situation and extent.

THIS country, called Great Tartary, to diſtinguiſh it from the Leſſer Tartary in Europe, is the ancient Scythia and Serica. It lies between the 53d and 138th deg. of longitude eaſt from London, and between the 40th and 80th of north latitude; which makes it about four thouſand miles in length, and three thouſand four hundred in breadth. The ſoil of ſo extenſive a country cannot be expreſſed in general; the climate is ſo various, that the produce of the earth muſt be different in the ſeveral diſtricts; but, according to the beſt accounts, the ſouthern parts would be fruitful if duly cultivated. It is true, that even there the land is much encumbered with mountains, ſo that we hear of no profitable commodity brought from thence but rhubarb, which it ſeems grows there very freely.

Soil and produce.

Inhabitants.

The people are an offſpring of the northern Scythians, who came down ſouthwards above five hundred years ago, and, like the Goths in Europe, and Saracens in Africa, carried all before them. They conquered Perſia and a great part of Aſia Minor; and though beaten thence, they found their way weſtward, and eſtabliſhed a monarchy in Taurica Cherſoneſus, which continued above three hundred years. That the Tartars are of Scythian original, is evident from their ſentiments and manners at this day. The Scythians ſacrificed to their gods the priſoners taken in war: the Tartars do not indeed deprive their priſoners of life, but they make death preferable, by ſelling them to maſters that equal themſelves in cruelty: the ancient Scythians lived on mare's milk, applied themſelves to the feeding of cattle, and neglected tillage; they had no other habitations but tilted waggons, which were drawn from paſture to paſture as herbage failed and neceſſity required; their cloathing was the ſkins of beaſts; they made uſe of poiſoned arrows; to croſs a river, they filled ſacks with cork, on which they placed themſelves, and were drawn over by horſes which they held by the tail; they had no

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written laws, but administered justice according to the natural dictates of reason: these customs still subsist, with little variation, among the Tartars. There was one very singular custom among the Scythians: when two friends wanted to swear a lasting friendship, they made incisions in their fingers, and received the blood in a cup; both dipped the points of their swords in it, and, lifting them to their heads, eagerly sucked it: when the modern Tartars take an oath, they dip their sabres in water, which they afterwards drink. The barbarity of some of their customs appears to have been softened by time; but one thing which has remained invariable in the character of these people, is their rage of invading the neighbouring nations upon every opportunity that offers, and often of falling upon one another, when they are confined in their own country by superior force or fear. Their wars, their incursions, their ravages, differ in nothing from those of the Scythians. We may apply to them what the prophet Jeremiah said, speaking of the irruption of their ancestors into India*, "Their chariots are as a whirlwind; their horses are swifter than eagles, and their quiver is an open sepulchre."

Asia, as before observed, has often felt that they have lost nothing of the brutal impetuosity of their ancestors. Their success is less surprising than that continuance of their valour, which, though not always sufficient to preserve their conquests, still kept up in them a desire to recover them. Thus, though expelled China in 1368, after possessing it above a century, they never ceased their efforts to recover it; and in 1644, reduced it in such a manner, that they have no reason to apprehend a second expulsion. The exploits of Tamerlane, the chief of one of their rulers, are well known. He was equal to Cæsar in courage, and not inferior to Alexander in good fortune. He conquered the Indies, subdued Persia, vanquished the Turks, and ravaged all Egypt. His name and reputation have reached nations to whom his country is still unknown.

Tartars divided into three powers.

The Tartars are generally divided into three distinct powers: the first are those known by the name of Tartars; the second are the Calmucks; and the third the Mongals. The Tartars, properly so called, live to the west of the Caspian sea. The most considerable of them are the Usbecks, the Kara Kalpacks, the Nagais who are subject

* Jer. chap. iv. ver. 13.

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to Ruſſia, the Baſkirs who alſo hold of that empire, and the Dagheſtans who depend on no power and are more ſavage and untractable than any of the reſt. The Nagais, who at preſent occupy the lands of Aſtracan, between the Jaïck and the Wolga, and the Baſkirs, who are ſituated in the eaſtern part of the kingdom of Caſan, between the Wolga and the river Kama, formerly received tribute from Ruſſia, which the great duke of Muſcovy carried to them annually on his own horſes. He was obliged to go on foot, followed by the principal perſons of his court, to meet the perſons who came to demand this tribute, and who were the pooreſt and moſt wretched of all their tribes. John, or Iwan, duke of Muſcovy, ſurnamed the Great, was the firſt who, to free himſelf from this ſhameful mark of ſervitude, attempted to bring the Tartars under ſubjection. His ſon Baſil continued to reduce them; but the final blow was given them by John Baſilides, a prince deteſted for his barbarity, but reſolute and valiant. He extended his power over the moſt diſtant of their hords. The khan of the Calmucks, who occupy a great part of the country which lies between the Mongal and the Wolga, is ſo powerful, that it is ſaid he can bring an army of a hundred thouſand men into the field. There is always a body of them in the Ruſſian army. They are rather ſhort than tall; but ſtrong, robuſt, courageous, and inured to fatigue. Their complexion is tawny, their faces flat, and their noſes ſunk to a level with their cheeks; their noſtrils are the only parts that are ſtriking, becauſe larger than their eyes; and theſe are ſo ſmall, that they would be ſcarce perceptible if they were not very black and ſparkling. They have ſcarce any beard; and their hair, of which they wear only a tuft on the crown of the head, is rough like a horſe's mane. They wear a round bonnet, with a border of fur, in the Poliſh manner, and a kind of looſe coat of ſheep-ſkins, which comes down to the middle of their legs. They ſerve only on horſeback; their arms are a bow which is larger, and arrows which are longer than uſual. It is ſaid, that their arrows are ſo ſharp-pointed, and that they make them fly with ſuch force, that they will pierce a man through. They carry alſo a muſquet, which hangs by their ſide, and a lance, which they handle with great dexterity. They are all Pagans; the name Calmucks is a kind of nickname given them by the Mohammedan Tartars, with which they are much offended. They want to be called Mogouls. Thoſe Tartars who are at preſent

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called Mungals, are situated, on one side, between these last people and the sea of Japan, and on the other between China and Siberia.

Kingdom of Astracan. The kingdom of Astracan begins in the 43d deg. and a half of latitude, under the finest of climates, and ends towards the 50th, comprehending about as many degrees of longitude as latitude; bounded on one side by the Caspian Sea, on the other by the mountains of Circassia, and still reaching beyond the Caspian Sea along Mount Caucasus; watered by the great river Wolga, the Jaïck, and several other rivers, between which, as our countryman the engineer Perry pretends, canals may be formed, which, serving as a bed to inundations, would produce the same effect as the channels of the Nile, by increasing the fertility of the land; but this fine country to the right and left of the Wolga and Jaïck, was infested, rather than inhabited by the Tartars, who never cultivated any thing, and who have always lived as strangers on the earth.

Engineer Perry, employed here by Peter the Great, found vast deserts covered with pastures, different sorts of pulse, cherry, and almond trees. Wild sheep, which yielded excellent nourishment, fed in these solitudes. To second therein nature, it was necessary to begin by taming and civilizing the men of these climes.

This kingdom of Astracan is a part of the ancient Capshak, conquered by Gengis Kan, and afterwards by Tamerlane. The dominions of these Tartars extended as far as Moscow. The czar John Basilides, as before mentioned, delivered his country from the Tartar yoke, and added the kingdom of Astracan to his other conquests in the year 1554. Astracan is the boundary of Asia and Europe, and may trade with either, transporting by the Wolga the merchandize brought by the Caspian Sea. This was one of the grand projects of Peter the Great. It was partly executed by him. An entire suburb of Astracan is inhabited by Indians.

Oremburg. At the south-east of the kingdom of Astracan is a small country newly formed, called Oremburg. A town of the same name was built in 1734, on the banks of the river Jaïck. The face of this country is uneven and rugged by some branches of Mount Caucasus. Forts raised at equal distances defend the passage of the mountains, and the rivers that descend from them. It is in this region, formerly inhabited, that the Persians, for some years past, have been laying up and secreting from rapacious robbers,

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their effects that eſcaped the civil wars. The town of Oremburg is become the refuge of the Perſians and their fortunes, and has increaſed by their calamities. The Indians and people of the Great Bukaria come to traffick there, ſo that it may be ſaid to be a mart for Aſia.

Governments of Caſan and the Great Permia.

Beyond the Wolga and the Jaïck, towards the north, is the kingdom of Caſan, which, together with Aſtracan, fell to the lot of a ſon of Gengis Kan, and afterwards of a ſon of Tamerlane. This is alſo a conqueſt of John Baſilides. It is ſtill peopled by a great number of Mohammedan Tartars. This great country extends as far as Siberia. It was formerly rich and flouriſhing, and ſtill retains ſome opulence. A province of this kingdom, called the Great Permia, and afterwards Solikam, was the ſtaple of Perſian merchandize and Tartar furs. A great quantity of the coins of the firſt caliphs, and ſome gold idols of the Tartars, have been found in Permia; but theſe monuments of former wealth were found in the midſt of poverty, and in deſerts, where no veſtiges of commerce could be diſcovered. Such revolutions happen but too ſoon and eaſily in a barren country, ſince they have happened in the moſt fertile.

The famous Swediſh priſoner Stralemberg, who turned to ſo good an account his misfortunes, after the battle of Pultowa, and who examined all thoſe great tracts of land with ſo much attention, is the firſt who made probable a fact which could never gain credit, concerning the ancient commerce of theſe regions. Pliny and Pomponius Mela relate, that, in the time of Auguſtus, a king of the Suevi made a preſent to Metellus Celer of ſome Indians, caſt by a ſtorm on the coaſts near the Elbe. How ſhould the inhabitants of India navigate the German ſeas? This adventure appeared fabulous to all our moderns, eſpecially ſince the commerce of our hemiſphere changed by the diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope. But formerly it was not more ſtrange to ſee an Indian trade into the northern countries of the Weſt, than to ſee a Roman paſs into India by Arabia. The Indians went into Perſia, embarked on the ſea of Hyrcania, ſailed up the Rha, which is the Wolga, proceeded as far as the great Permia, by Kama, and from thence might embark on the North Sea, or Baltic. There have been in all times enterprifing men. The Tyrians undertook and ſucceeded in more aſtoniſhing voyages.

If, after having paſſed in review all theſe extenſive provinces, you caſt your eye to the eaſt, there again the

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limits of Europe and Aſia are confounded. A new name ſhould ſeem requiſite for this great part of the world. The ancients divided into Aſia, Europe, and Africa their known world; they had not ſeen the tenth part of it; and this is the reaſon, when the Palus Mæotis is paſſed, that it is not known where Europe ends and Aſia begins. All beyond Mount Taurus received the vague appellation of Scythia, and afterwards that of Tartary. It would be proper, perhaps, to call by the name of Artic Land, or Land of the North, all the country that extends from the Baltic to the confines of China, as the name of Auſtral Land is given by ſome to that part of the world, not leſs great, ſituated under the antarctic pole, and which makes the counterpoiſe of the globe.

Government of Siberia.

From the frontiers of the provinces of Archangel, Reſan, Aſtracan, Siberia extends to the eaſt, with farther tracts of land as far as the ſea of Japan; it touches the ſouth of Ruſſia by Mount Caucaſus; from thence to the country of Kamſchatka about twelve hundred common leagues are reckoned; and from South Tartary, which ſerves it as a boundary, as far as the Frozen Sea, there are about four hundred, which is the leaſt breadth of this country. Siberia produces the richeſt furs, and it was this that occaſioned its diſcovery in 1563.

Diſcovery and conqueſt of Siberia.

A Don Coſſack, by name Yarmak, being obliged by ſome accident to leave his native country, and having no means of ſubſiſtence, betook himſelf, with a few accomplices, to robbing on the highway. He ſoon became famous and powerful, for he robbed only the rich, and, by a generoſity uncommon in ſuch a character, liberally beſtowed on ſuch as were in want. He never killed, or even hurt any perſon, unleſs compelled to ſuch outrages in his own defence. This behaviour ſo raiſed his reputation, that all the idle fellows in the country enliſted themſelves in his gang, and he became at laſt ſo troubleſome, that the governors of the ſouthern provinces ſent out troops to apprehend him; but he being informed of their deſign, withdrew from the land, and procuring boats upon the Wolga, commenced pirate. Being attacked here alſo, he was forced to croſs the Caſpian Sea, and ſhelter himſelf on the Perſian ſhore, where he paſſed for a merchant. Being again diſcovered, he was obliged by the Perſians to quit their coaſt; and now his only refuge was to return to the Wolga, where he behaved with great circumſpection, often lurking in woods and villages, and being in no want of money, he paid liberally for every

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every thing he needed. Foreſeeing, however, that ſuch a numerous gang could not be long concealed, he took the reſolution of leaving the Wolga, and ſteered his courſe up the river Kama, at that time little frequented by the Ruſſians or any other nation; here he hoped to find at leaſt a ſafe retreat during the winter. Yarmak, therefore, with his followers, amounting to two hundred, continued their voyage up the Kama, till they were ſtopped by the ice, at no great diſtance from a large village. The inhabitants, alarmed at the ſight of ſo many armed men, whom they were not able to oppoſe, gave them a hoſpitable reception. Yarmak demanded only proviſions and winter-quarters for his men, promiſing to leave them unmoleſted in the ſpring. In conſequence of this declaration, he and his followers paſſed the winter very quietly in that remote place; but apprehenſive, at the approach of ſummer, of being diſcovered by the government, and uncertain what courſe to ſteer, it was at laſt determined to croſs the mountains of Verchaturia, and go to the eaſtward, in hopes of finding ſome uninhabited country, at leaſt a ſafe retreat.

Having paſſed the mountains, they arrived at the river Tur, and, finding it navigable, ſoon made a ſufficient number of canoes for the whole gang. After rowing for ſome days down the Tur, they diſcovered ſeveral villages of Mohammedan Tartars, who were ſupriſed at the ſight of ſuch a number of ſtrangers, of whom they had before never ſo much as heard. Yarmak having got what intelligence he could procure of the ſituation and government of the country, purſued his voyage to the river Tobol, where he found the towns populous, and the lands well cultivated. His approach alarmed the king of the the Tartars, who aſſembled a numerous body of horſe and foot, armed with bows and arrows, lances and other ſuch weapons, with whom our adventurer had many ſkirmiſhes, and defeated great multitudes by means of his fire-arms, which had never before been known in thoſe parts. The poor Tartars were as much amazed and terrified at the ſight of the Ruſſians and their arms, as the inhabitants of Mexico on the arrival of the Spaniards in America; to which Siberia may, in many reſpects be compared.

Yarmak, finding his enemies daily more numerous the nearer he approached the reſidence of the Tartar king; having alſo loſt many of his men in continual encounters, and ſpent the greateſt part of his ammunition; knowing, beſides, of no place of ſafety where he might paſs the

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winter, which is both long and ſevere in this quarter, at laſt determined to retreat. He therefore ſteered his courſe to the weſt, up the Tobol and Tur rivers. The Tartars gave him no reſt, but harraſſed him perpetually from the banks. He himſelf, and a few more, eſcaped with a conſiderable booty, and returned to the village where they wintered before. The inhabitants, on ſeeing the rich furs and other ſpoils, gave them a welcome reception; and Yarmak did not forget to diſpenſe his favours liberally among thoſe who had entertained him in his diſtreſs, when he fled from juſtice.

Our adventurer had now time to reflect on his miſerable circumſtances. He conſidered, that his lurking in theſe parts, though remote from any town, could not be long kept a ſecret; to make another attempt againſt the Tartars with a handful of men, ill provided with arms and ammunition, might perhaps be ruinous, and certainly unſucceſsful. He therefore reſolved to ſubmit himſelf to the czar's clemency, in hopes of obtaining a pardon for himſelf and his accomplices, on condition of pointing out the way to a rich and eaſy conqueſt of a country which he had diſcovered. The propoſal was made at court by a friend, and was of too great importance to be neglected. In ſhort, Yarmak was brought to Moſcow, under a ſafe-conduct, where he communicated the whole affair. He begged his majeſty's pardon, and aſked a certain number of troops, which he promiſed to lead to a glorious conqueſt. His majeſty granted him a pardon, approved of the expedition, and gave orders for the troops to attend him. They marched to Solikamſki, where they paſſed the winter in making preparations for their enterprize.

During this interval Yarmak behaved with ſurpriſing prudence and activity, and diſcovered himſelf to be a perſon of uncommon genius. He collected ſuch of his former followers as remained, and formed them into a company, in whom he could confide on all occaſions.

At the proper ſeaſon the troops ſet out towards Siberia. On coming into the inhabited parts of the country, they found many ſtraggling parties of Tartars in arms, ready to oppoſe them, and a number of boats upon the rivers, full of armed men; the king of the Tartars himſelf was on board one of theſe veſſels. This expedition was of ſhort duration, and fully anſwered the expectations of the Ruſſians. The Tartars in the boats being purſued by the Ruſſians, a battle enſued on the river Irtiſh. Yarmak obſerving the king's barge, ordered his crew to board her, which

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which he endeavouring to do at the head of his men, jumped ſhort, fell into the river, and was drowned, to the great grief of all his followers. Thus fell poor Yarmak! Notwithſtanding this misfortune the Ruſſians gained a complete victory. The brave king of the Tartars loſt his life alſo in the action. His ſon, and the reſt of the royal family, were taken priſoners, and ſent to Moſcow, where they were honourably received by the czar, and treated according to their quality. The prince had an extenſive property granted him in Ruſſia, which the family now enjoys, together with the title of Sibirſky Czarowitz, or prince of Siberia.

How the Samoieds were diſcovered.

It was not in the reign of the czar Fedor Iwanowitz, but in that of Iwan Baſilides, in the ſixteenth century, that a private perſon, of the neighbourhood of Archangel, a man rich for his condition and country, perceived that men of extraordinary figure, clothed after a manner till then unknown in his part of the country, and ſpeaking a language which none underſtood, came down regularly every year a river that falls into the Duina, bringing with them to market martens and black foxes, which they exchanged for nails and bits of glaſs, as the ſavages of America firſt gave their gold to the Spaniards. He had them followed by his children and ſervants as far as their country: they were Samoieds, a people that appear like the Laplanders, but not of the ſame race. They are ignorant, as the Laplanders, of the uſe of bread; they have, as they, the aſſiſtance of rein-deer, which they yoke to their ſledges. They live in caverns and huts in the midſt of the ſnow; but nature has otherwiſe ſet ſome very diſtinguiſhing marks between this ſpecies of men and that of the Laplanders: their upper maxilla, or jaw, more advanced, is on a level with their noſe, and their ears are higher up; the men and women have hair only on the head; the nipple of their breaſt is of a black ebony colour. Neither ſex of the Laplanders have any of theſe marks; ſo that it is without any juſt foundation that the ſpecies of the Laplanders and Samoieds have been confounded. There are many more different races of men than are thought of; thoſe of the Samoieds and Hottentots ſeems to be the two extremes of our continent; and, if we attend to the black breaſts of the Samoied women, and the apron nature has given the Hottentot women, and which deſcends to the half of their thighs, we ſhall have ſome idea of the varieties of our animal ſpecies.

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The morality of the Samoieds is equally ſingular with their phyſics. They pay no worſhip to the Supreme Being: their religion is a ſort of Manicheiſm, or rather the ancient religion of the Magi, in the one point of acknowleging a good and bad principle. The horrid climate they dwell in ſeems, in ſome reſpects, to excuſe this belief, ſo ancient among ſo many people, and ſo natural to the ignorant and unfortunate. Theft and murder are not heard of among them; being almoſt without paſſions, they are without injuſtice. They have no terms in their language to expreſs vice and virtue. Their extreme ſimplicity has not yet permitted them to form abſtracted notions; ſentiment alone directs them; and it is, perhaps, an inconteſtible proof that men love juſtice by inſtinct, when their paſſions do not blind them. Some of theſe ſavages were perſuaded to ſuffer themſelves to be conducted to Moſcow; every thing there ſtruck them with admiration; the emperor they regarded as their god, and ſubmitted to give him yearly an offering of two ſables per each inhabitant. Some colonies were ſoon eſtabliſhed beyond the Oby and the Irtiſh, and even forts were built there. A Coſſack was ſent into the country in 1595, and conquered it for the czars, with ſome ſoldiers and artillery, as Cortez ſubdued Mexico, but he ſcarce conquered any thing more than deſerts.

Tobolſkoy capital of Siberia.

At the confluence of the rivers Irtiſh and Tobol, a ſmall habitation was found by the Ruſſians, which they converted, ſince their conqueſt, into the city of Tobolſkoy, the capital of Siberia, at preſent conſiderable. It contains about fifteen thouſand inhabitants. The clergy conſiſts of about fifty monks, or prieſts. There was once a good trade from this place to China by caravans; but the mutual knavery of the Ruſſians and Chineſe merchants ſoon reduced it to a languiſhing ſtate; and ſome differences which aroſe between the two powers have ſince totally deſtroyed it. Theſe differences were occaſioned by a revolution which happened among the Zungore Calmucks, after the death of Galdan Tcherin, in 1746.

Revolution among the Calmucks.

Galdan Tcherin was khan of the nation which inhabited that part of Northern Tartary which is ſituated between Siberia and China. This nation admitted no ſovereign but its khan, and upon the death of Galdan Tcherin, a civil war broke out among ſeveral competitors to ſucceed him. The Chineſe, who dreaded the power of this nation, which was become formidable to all its neigh-

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neighbours, contrived firſt to weaken it on this occaſion, by favouring each of the competitors by turns, and then to fall upon the conqueror, and deſtroy his power at once. The name of this unhappy prince was Amourſaman; and the wretched remains of this once mighty nation, conſiſting of about twenty thouſand families, took ſhelter under the protection of Ruſſia, upon the banks of the Wolga. Amourſaman, after having wandered from place to place, at laſt retired to the frontiers of Siberia, in 1757, where he died of the ſmall-pox in 1760. The Chineſe, as ſoon as they heard he had retired to Siberia, demanded that he ſhould be delivered up, or, as the Ruſſians ſay, that he ſhould be confined for life. He continued for ſome time at Tobolſky before his death, and his body was ſent to the frontiers of Siberia, whither the Chineſe ſent commiſſioners more than once to examine it. Two Calmuck ambaſſadors, who had been ſent to Peterſburg whilſt Amourſaman was ſtill living, learnt, on their return to Tobolſkoy, that their nation was no longer exiſting.

Who would believe it, that this country was, for a long time, the abode of the ſame Huns who ravaged all as far as Rome, under Attila, and that theſe Huns came from the north of China? The Uſbeck Tartars ſucceeded the Huns, and the Ruſſians the Uſbecks. Theſe ſavage countries were diſputed, after the manner that nations exterminated each other for more fertile. Siberia was formerly better peopled than it is, eſpecially towards the ſouth; ſome ſepulchral monuments and ruins are a ſufficient argument that it was ſo.

All this part of the world, from the ſixtieth degree, or thereabouts, to the mountains, eternally frozen, which bound the north ſeas, reſemble in nothing the regions of the temperate zone. The earth does not afford the ſame plants and animals, nor the lakes and rivers the ſame fiſh. The ridge of the Verchaturia mountains, which may be conſidered as a branch of Mount Caucaſus, commencing to the ſouthward, and ſeparating Aſia from Europe quite to the Frozen Sea, is no where higher than from fifty to eighty fathoms; but the declivity is very ſteep, and the ſummit is covered with pine, birch, and fir. The way over theſe mountains is very frightful, and by night extremely dangerous; for if the ſledge deviates ever ſo little from the beaten track, the unfortunate traveller will inevitably be buried in a gulf of ſnow. Here there is ſeldom any ſign of a more clement ſeaſon, not

Verchaturia mountains.

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ſo much as by the flight of a bird; for even the pies and crows, which abound through all Ruſſia, abandon theſe horrid deſerts, where nature herſelf ſeems benumbed, and it is only by the traces of the ſledge that the country is known to be inhabited. The gloom of deſolation ſurrounds it on every ſide, and a horrid ſilence, which is never broken but by the outcries of thoſe that ſuffer from the perils of the way. The inhabitants are ſhut up in their hovels nine months in the year; the ſnow appears upon the mountains in the beginning of September, and ſo great a quantity deſcends in a ſhort time afterwards, as to leave ſcarce any traces of a habitation upon them. The inhabitants are then obliged to break a way through it, and it ſeldom begins to thaw there till the middle of April; and though it gives ſomewhat ſooner in the plain, it does not totally diſappear till the end of May; ſo that the ſeverity of the winter is ſuſpended only three months in the year, during which time, however, they ſow rye, oats, barley, and peaſe, which they get in by the end of Auguſt; but none of them are perfectly ripe.

Inhabitants deſcribed. The inhabitants of this country, for the moſt part, profeſs the religion of the Greek church, but with a fanaticiſm that ſeems gradually to increaſe with the diſtance from the capital. As their ſtate and ſituation do not admit the indulgence of artificial wants, their deſires are neceſſarily few: they have neither manufacture nor commerce; their proviſion is very bad, and therefore eaſily procured, conſiſting of dry or ſtinking fiſh, peaſe, and a coarſe black kind of bread, made of rye; their drink is a wretched kind of beer, and a liquor they call quas, which is no other than water fermented with bran, and then mixed with a ſmall quantity of meal. They live in total idleneſs and inactivity, ſhut up in their ſtoves, the extreme naſtineſs of which is not to be conceived. They are, however, fond of their condition, and hate the thoughts of ſtirring out of their dunghill, eſpecially to bear arms; but, if forced into the ſervice, brandy, and the fear of puniſhment, will make them tolerable ſoldiers. The unwholſomeneſs and inconvenience of their hovels are greatly increaſed by the ſeverity of the winter, which prevents their communication with the freſh air; their windows are ſeldom more than a foot wide, and ſix inches high; and they are alſo deprived of the light of the ſun the while he is paſſing through the ſouthern ſigns; have they any artificial light but by ſplinters of birch-d, which they ſet on fire, and ſtick up in the chinks of

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of the floor: this practice is, indeed, common through all Ruſſia, and frequently cauſes fires, which almoſt immediately ſpread over half a town, as the houſes are all built of wood, except in the cities and principal towns. But, notwithſtanding all this inactivity, confinement, and naſtineſs, they enjoy robuſt and uninterrupted health; ſo effectually does perpetual temperance counter-balance all that can weigh againſt health and life. There is ſcarce one among them that is weakly or deformed, and their manner of education ſecures to them this good fortune. The child, as ſoon as born, is laid upon a heap of ſtraw or old rags, in a baſket, where it ſprawls about, and ſtretches its limbs, without any reſtraint, it is nouriſhed with milk by means of a horn which is fitted to a cow's-teats, but ſometimes ſuckled by the mother; the baſket is hung at the end of a long elaſtic pole, ſo that it may eaſily be put in motion, and the child rocked as in a cradle; but before it can go alone, it is placed upon the ground, where it rolls about at pleaſure, till it learns firſt to ſtand, and then to totter along, with nothing to cover it but a ſhirt, which ſcarce reaches to the middle of the thigh. By this management their children walk ſooner than ours can ſtand alone, and as ſoon as they are able are ſuffered to run about, and, at the end of the winter, are playing in the road in the midſt of the ſnow, while the weather is ſtill ſo cold, that the traveller is afraid of getting out of his ſledge, though covered with fur from head to foot. They are of a large ſtature, extremely muſcular and ſtrong, and live longer than the inhabitants of any other known part of world. This, however, is not becauſe their ſituation, upon the whole, is favourable to life in the tender years of infancy, but is rather the reverſe; for all the children who are not ſtrong by conſtitution, die ſoon, and none are reared but thoſe who are born with the greateſt natural advantages. More than two-thirds of the children that are born here die in their infancy, and it is common to find but three or four alive, in families that have had ſixteen or eighteen. Many other cauſes concur gradually to depopulate the villages that are ſcattered through this vaſt deſart. The ſmall-pox frequently carries off half the inhabitants of one of theſe hamlets at a time, and ſometimes a greater proportion; the ſcurvy is alſo very fatal among them; and where they can procure ſpirituous liquors, the inroads of diſeaſe and mortality are in proportion to their want of the advantages which makes intemperance leſs fatal in other

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other places. The venereal diſeaſe alſo makes great havock among theſe unhappy wretches, to whom the method of cure is wholly unknown; it prevails ſo much in Siberia and Northern Tartary, that there is great reaſon to believe it will at length depopulate the country. The manners of the people of Tobolſkoy are rather more corrupt than thoſe that live diſperſed in the country. The women of all ranks and ages paint here, and are in general handſome, but have not that feminine ſoftneſs which is the principal charm of the ſex.

Oſtiacks and Burates.

Below the country of the Samoieds, along the river Oby, lies that of Oſtiacks: they are quite different from the Samoieds, except that, like them, and the men of the primitive ages of the world, they are hunters, ſhepherds, and fiſhermen. Some of them are without religion, as living ſeparate; others, compoſing hords, have a kind of worſhip, and make vows to the principal object of their wants: they adore a ſheep's-ſkin, becauſe no other ſort of cattle is more neceſſary to them. The ſame way the ancient Egyptian huſbandmen made choice of an ox, to adore, in the emblem of this animal, the divinity that produced it for man's uſe. The Oſtiacks have alſo other idols, of which neither the origin nor worſhip does deſerve our attention, any more than their adorers. Some of them have been converted to Chriſtianity about the year 1712; but they are ſuch Chriſtians as the groſſeſt peaſants, without knowing what they are. Several authors pretend, that this people came originally from the Great Permia; but this Great Permia is almoſt a deſart. Why ſhould its inhabitants ſettle ſo far off, and ſo indifferently? Theſe obſcurities are not worth our reſearches. Every people that has not cultivated the arts, ought to be condemned to oblivion. It is particularly among theſe Oſtiacks, and the Burates and Jakutes, their neighbours, that the ivory is often found in the ground, of which the origin cannot be accounted for without having recourſe to the univerſal deluge. Some believe it to be a foſſil ivory, others, the teeth of a ſort of elephant, whereof the race is deſtroyed. In what country do we not find natural productions, which equally aſtoniſh and confound philoſophy? Several mountains of theſe countries abound with the amianthus, or that incombuſtible flax, of which ſometimes cloth is made, and ſometimes a kind of paper. The Burates, another people not yet made Chriſtians, live to the ſouth of the Oſtiacks; and eaſtward are ſeveral hords not yet entirely ſubjected.

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None of theſe people have the leaſt knowlege of the calendar; they reckon their time by ſnows, and not by the apparent courſe of the ſun. As it ſnows regularly, and for a long time, every winter, they ſay, I am ſo many ſnows old, as we ſay ſo many years old.

The Swediſh officer Stralemberg, who had been made priſoner at the battle of Pultowa, and ſpent fifteen years in Siberia, all parts of which he had viſited, ſays, that there are ſtill ſome remains of an ancient people, whoſe ſkin is party coloured and ſpotted, and that he had ſeen men of that race. This fact has been confirmed by ſome Ruſſians born at Tobolſkoy. It ſeems that the variety of the human ſpecies has much diminiſhed; we find but few of theſe ſingular races, which, probably, others have exterminated: for example, there are very few of the white Moors, whereof one was preſented, ſome time ago, to the Academy of Sciences, at Paris. The ſame may be ſaid of ſeveral animals, whoſe ſpecies is become very rare.

This country was called Siberia, only ſince its conqueſt by the Ruſſians, from a Sclavonic word, ſignifying a *priſon*, having been made ſuch, on account of its extreme coldneſs and barrenneſs. The priſoners of ſtate who are baniſhed here, ſome during life, ſome for a term of years, according to their crimes, or pleaſure of the czars, either without any, or with a very ſmall allowance, as, perhaps, a penny a-day, are obliged to ſhoot for their living, or ſtarve. They are, beſides, obliged to bring in weekly a certain quantity of furs, as a tribute to the czar, elſe they are ſeverely puniſhed by taſk-maſters purpoſely ſet over them. They muſt alſo be very careful, that the furs have no holes in them; and this makes them exceeding dexterous in ſhooting theſe creatures only in the head, and with a ſingle ball. *Siberia, whence denominated.*

All the ſouthern parts of theſe countries are peopled by numerous hords of Tartars. The ancient Turks paſſed out of this Tartary to conquer all the territories they are now in poſſeſſion of. The Calmucks, the Monguls, are the ſame Scythians, who, headed by Madies, ſeized upon the Upper Aſia, and conquered Cyaxares, king of the Medes. Theſe alſo are they whom Gengis Khan and his children led afterwards into Germany, and who formed the Mogul empire under Tamerlane. Theſe people are a great example of the changes that have happened among all nations. ome of their hords, far from being formid-

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able, are become vaſſals of Ruſſia. Such is a nation of Calmucks that dwells between Siberia and the Caſpian Sea. Here were found, in 1720, a ſubterraneous houſe of ſtone, urns, lamps, ear-pendants, an equeſtrian ſtatue of an Oriental prince, with a diadem on his head; two women ſitting on thrones; a roll of manuſcripts, ſent by Peter the Great, to the Academy of Inſcriptions at Paris, and found to be in the language of Tiber. All theſe were illuſtrious teſtimonies that the arts once inhabited this country, now barbarous; and they were alſo ſufficient proofs of what Peter the Great was often heard to ſay, that the arts had made the tour of the world.

Kamtſchatka deſcribed.

Kamtſchatka is the laſt province of Siberia. It was long known by that name to the geographers of former times: but ſo little were they acquainted with its ſituation, that they believed it to be joined to Yeſſo; whereas a large ſea, interſperſed with many iſlands, lies between the two countries. At preſent, Kamtſchatka is known to be that great peninſula which makes the boundary of Aſia to the north-eaſt, ſtretching from north to ſouth about ſeven degrees thirty minutes. It begins at the rivers Puſtaio and Anapho, lying in the latitude of fifty-nine degrees thirty minutes. The firſt runs into the Penſchinſka Sea, and the other to the eaſtward. At theſe places the iſthmus is ſo narrow, that the ſea may, in fair weather, be ſeen on both ſides from the hills in the middle. As the country runs broader towards the north, this place may be reckoned the iſthmus that joins the peninſula to the main land.

The natives of this country are divided into three different people: the Kamtſchatkans, Koreki, and Kuriles. The Kamtſchatkans live upon the ſouth-ſide of the promontory of Kamtſchatka; the Koreki inhabit the northern parts on the coaſt of the Penſchinſka Sea, and round the eaſtern ocean, almoſt to Anadir; the Kuriles inhabit the iſlands in that ſea, reaching as far as thoſe of Japan. They are all as wild as the country itſelf. Some of them have no fixed habitations, but wander from place to place with their herds of rein-deer; others have ſettled habitations, and reſide upon the banks of the rivers, and the ſea-ſhore, living upon fiſh and ſea-animals, and ſuch herbs as grow upon the ſhore. The former dwell in huts, covered with deer-ſkins; the latter in places dug out of the earth; both in a very barbarous manner. Their diſpoſitions and tempers are rough; and they are entirely ignorant of letters or religion.

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It is very probable, that the Kamtſchatkans lived formerly in Mungalia, beyond the river Amur, and made one people with the Mungals, which appears from their having ſeveral words common to the Mungal Chineſe language, and their terminations in ong, ing, oang, chin, cha, kſi, kſung. But not to inſiſt upon the language only, both are of a low ſtature, ſwarthy, have black hair, a broad face, ſharp noſe, eyes ſunk in, eye-brows ſmall and thin, a hanging belly, ſlender legs and arms; and both are remarkable for cowardice, boaſting, and ſlaviſhneſs to people who uſe them hard, and for their obſtinacy and contempt of thoſe who treat them with gentleneſs.

Before the Ruſſian conqueſt, they lived in perfect freedom, having no chief, being ſubject to no law, nor paying any taxes; the old men, or thoſe who were remarkable for their bravery, bearing the principal authority in their villages, though none had any right to command, or inflict puniſhment. They reſemble the other inhabitants of Siberia; but differ in this, that their faces are not ſo long as the other Siberians, their cheeks ſtand more out, their teeth are thick, their mouth large, their ſtature middling, and their ſhoulders broad, particularly thoſe who inhabit the ſea-coaſt.

Their manner of living is ſlovenly to the laſt degree; they never waſh their hands or face, nor cut their nails; they eat out of the ſame diſh with the dogs, which they never waſh; every thing about them ſtinks of fiſh; they never comb their heads, but both men and women plait their hair in two locks, binding the ends with ſmall cords. When any hair ſtarts out, they ſew it with threads to make it lie cloſe; by this means, they have ſuch a quantity of vermin, that they ſcrape them off by handfuls, and are naſty enough to eat them. Thoſe that have not a ſufficient ſtock of natural hair wear falſe locks, and ſometimes as much as weigh ten pounds, which makes their heads look like a haycock.

They have extraordinary notions of God, of ſins, and good actions. They have filled almoſt every place in heaven and earth with different ſpirits, which they both worſhip and fear more than God, becauſe, in caſe of troubles and misfortunes, they curſe and blaſpheme him. Their chief happineſs conſiſts in idleneſs, and gratifying their natural luſts and appetites. They have no notion of riches, fame, or honour; therefore covetouſneſs, ambition, and pride, are unknown among them. Their

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trade is likewiſe not ſo much calculated for the acquiſition of riches, as for procuring the neceſſaries and conveniences of life. They ſell the Koreki ſables, fox, and white dog ſkins, dried muſhrooms, or ſuch trifles; and receive in exchange, cloths made of deer-ſkins and other hides. Among themſelves they exchange what they abound with for what they want, as dogs, boats, diſhes, troughs, nets, hemp, yarn, and proviſions. This kind of barter is carried on under a great ſhew of friendſhip; for, when one wants any thing that another has, he goes freely to viſit him, and without any ceremony makes known his wants, though, perhaps, he never had any acquaintance with that perſon before. The landlord is obliged to behave according to the cuſtom of the country, and gives his gueſt whatever he has occaſion for. He afterwards returns the viſit, and muſt be received in the ſame manner; ſo that both parties have their wants ſupplied.

Though their manner of living is moſt naſty, and their actions moſt ſtupid, yet they think themſelves the happieſt people in the world, and look upon the Ruſſians who are ſettled among them with contempt: however, this notion begins to change at preſent; for the old people, who are confirmed in their cuſtoms, drop off, and the young ones, being converted to the Chriſtian religion, adopt the cuſtoms of the Ruſſians, and deſpiſe the barbarity and ſuperſtition of their anceſtors.

In every oſtrog, or large village, by order of her late imperial majeſty Elizabeth, is appointed a chief, who is ſole judge in all cauſes, except thoſe of life and death; and not only theſe chiefs, but even the common people, have their chapels for public worſhip. Schools are alſo erected in almoſt every village, to which the Kamſchatkans ſend their children with pleaſure. By theſe means their barbarity, very probably, will, in a ſhort time, be rooted out.

In a late expedition of the Ruſſians to this country, the ſea-officers delineated exactly all the eaſtern coaſt of Kamtſchatka, as far as the Cape of Tchukotſkoi, all the weſtern to the Penchinſka gulf, and from Ochotokoy to the river Amur; they deſcribed the iſlands lying between Japan and Kamtſchatka, and alſo thoſe between Kamtſchatka and America. At the ſame time, the gentlemen of the Academy undertook to determine the ſituation of Kamtſchatka by aſtronomical obſervations, and to remark every thing worthy of notice in the civil and natural hiſtory of the country and places adjacent.

A Coſſac

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A Coſſac officer went firſt by land from Siberia to Kamtſchatka, in 1701, by order of Peter the Great, who, after the unfortunate affair of Narva, ſtill extended his care from one extremity of the continent to the other. Afterwards, in 1725, ſome time before death ſurpriſed him in the midſt of his great projects, he ſent the Daniſh captain Bering with expreſs orders to go by the ſea of Kamſchatka to the land of America, if the enterprize was practicable. Bering could not ſucceed in his firſt navigation. The empreſs Anne ſent him again in 1733. Spengenberg, a captain of a ſhip, who was appointed to keep company in this voyage, ſet out the firſt from Kamtſchatka, but could not put to ſea till 1739, by reaſon of the time required to arrive at the port where they were to embark, and build and fit out ſhips with all neceſſaries. Spengenberg penetrated as far as the north of Japan, through a ſtreight formed by a long chain of iſles, and returned, without any farther diſcovery than this paſſage. *Expeditions for diſcovering America.*

In 1741, Bering ſailed through this ſea, accompanied by the aſtronomer De l'Iſle de la Croyer, of the De l'Iſle family, which has produced ſuch learned geographers. Another captain went alſo on the diſcovery. Bering and he arrived at the coaſt of America, on the north of California. This paſſage, ſo long ſought for through the North Seas, was, therefore, at laſt diſcovered, but no ſuccour nor refreſhments were found on theſe deſart coaſts. Freſh water failed them, and the ſcurvy carried off a part of the ſhip's crew. They ſaw, for the ſpace of a hundred miles, the north ſhores of California, and they perceived copper canoes, which carried men like the Canadians. All was fruitleſs. Bering died in an iſland to which he gave his name. The other captain, finding himſelf nearer California, landed ten of his men, but they never appeared again. The captain, after expecting them in vain, was obliged to return to Kamtſchatka, and De l'Iſle expired as he juſt got to land. Theſe diſaſters are the deſtiny of almoſt all the firſt attempts on the North ſeas. It is not yet known what benefit will be derived from ſuch painful and dangerous diſcoveries. Hereafter, in deſcribing America, we ſhall have an occaſion to ſpeak of that part of it which lies neareſt to Kamtſchatka.

We have ſpecified whatever compoſes in general the dominions of Aſiatic Ruſſia. All the great parts of the Ruſſian empire have been united at different times, as it has happened in all the other kingdoms of the world.

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Scythians, Huns, Maſſagetes, Sclavonians, Cimbrians, Getes, Sarmatians, are now the ſubjects of the czars. The Ruſſians are, properly ſpeaking, the ancient Roxelans, or Sclavonians.

After a few curſory reflections, we ſhall find, that the greater part of other ſtates are compoſed in this manner. France is an aſſemblage of Goths, Danes called Normans, ſeptentrional Germans called Burgundians, Francs, Allemans, and ſome Romans, mixed with the ancient Celts. Great Britain and Ireland are much the ſame way compounded, except that the blood of the Scots, Iriſh, and Welch, remains ſtill more unmixed. In Rome, and in Italy, are ſeveral families deſcended from the people of the North, as Lombards, Goths, Teutons, and Cimbrians; and now none of the ancient Romans are known in this country; the Spaniards are a race of Arabs, Carthaginians, Jews, Tyrians, Viſigoths, and Vandals, incorporated with the inhabitants of the country. When there is ſuch a mixture of nations it is long before they can be civilized, or even brought to form their language. Some admit of being poliſhed ſooner, others later. Police and arts are eſtabliſhed with ſo much difficulty, and revolutions ruin ſo frequently the commenced edifice, that there is good reaſon to be aſtoniſhed, that the greater part of nations do not live like Tartars.

SECT. IX.

Of the Empires of China and Japan.

Situation, boundaries, and extent of China.

THE vaſt, ancient, and opulent empire of China, ſituate on the moſt eaſtern verge of the Aſiatic continent, is bounded on the north by eaſt and weſt Tartary, from which it is divided by a prodigious wall of one thouſand five hundred miles in length, and partly by high, craggy, and inacceſſible mountains. On the eaſt, it is bounded by the Eaſtern Ocean, on the weſt by part of the Mogul's empire, and India extra Gangem, from which it is parted by ridges of other high mountains and ſandy deſarts; and on the ſouth, partly by the kingdoms of Lao, Tonquin, Ava, and Cochin-china, and partly by the Southern Ocean, or Indian Sea, which flows between it and the Phillippine Iſlands. It is of ſuch great extent, that it reaches in latitude from eighteen to almoſt forty-three degrees, ſo that its utmoſt length, including the iſland of Hay-nan, will be one thouſand eight hundred miles, and its

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its breadth, meaſured from the ſea-port town Nimpo, in the province of Che-kien, to the utmoſt boundaries of Su-chuen, will be one thouſand two hundred and ſixty.

Temperature and ſoil.

The country is for the moſt part temperate, except towards the northern parts, which are intolerably cold, not ſo much from their ſituation, as from the ridges of mountains that run along them, which are exceſſive high, and commonly covered with deep ſnows. The ſoil is different according to the diverſity of climates, and the face of the country, in ſome parts mountainous, in others champaign; but the inhabitants are ſuch expert and diligent maſters of agriculture, that they leave no ſpot uncultivated. As they abound with artificial canals and reſervoirs for watering and fertilizing their low lands, ſo they have been no leſs induſtrious with reſpect to their high ones; firſt, by levelling a great many of them, whenever the labour and number of hands could compaſs it to advantage; ſecondly, by levelling and flatting the very ſummits of many of their mountains, in order to make them bear variety of grain, pulſe, and the like; and thirdly, by dividing their declivities into as many flat ſtages as they can conveniently bear; by which means the waters, whether of rain and dew, or of the ſprings that come down from the tops, have a proper time to ſoak into the ground, and to nouriſh the ſown ſeed, inſtead of rooting it up and waſhing it down, as happens in other countries, by the violence of their deſcent along their natural declivity. Nothing can be more agreeable than to view, from the lower vallies, thoſe ſides of the mountains cut into ſuch a number of terraces one over the other, and all covered up to the top with variety of corn and fruits. Theſe mountains are nothing near ſo hard and ſtony as ours, but rather of a ſoft porous nature, and what is ſtill more ſurpriſing, may be dug with eaſe ſome hundreds of feet deep; ſo that the ſalts which tranſpire through their pores, prove a conſtant and excellent manure to theſe artificial grounds: but where the mountains are rocky, they content themſelves with planting them with all ſorts of fruit and other trees, according to the nature of the ground. They are no leſs curious and careful in improving every ſort by a proper manure; and thus, as well by their abundance of water, as warmth of the climate, their ground yields in ſome provinces two, and ſometimes three, plentiful harveſts in a year.

Product

The product of the country is corn and grain of all ſorts, in great plenty; with ſilk, cotton, honey, wax,

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fruits of all the ſorts we have in Europe, and ſeveral others, all exquiſite to the ſight and taſte, not known amongſt us. Their oranges, grapes, figs, pomegranates, ananas, and many others, are in as great perfection as in any part of India. Their rich paſture grounds breed prodigious numbers of cattle. Game is in great plenty and variety, particularly bears, boars, buffaloes, deer of ſeveral kinds, whoſe ſkins are a profitable commodity. Beſides theſe, there are a number of elephants, tygers, fierce, and extremely dangerous, ſeeking their prey commonly in large droves; and leopards, with various kinds of other wild creatures, not to be found in many other countries. The muſk-cat, which carries that noble perfume in a kind of bladder under its navel, is caught here, and is in great eſteem. They have horſes, camels, oxen, ſwine, in no leſs abundance than in other countries; their mules in particular, which are wild, are fitter for eating than for other uſes. Their birds are eagles, cranes, ſtorks, birds of paradiſe, pelicans, peacocks, pheaſants, geeſe, ſwans, ducks, and a numberleſs variety of others. As for fiſh, there can be no doubt but that the multitude of rivers, canals, and lakes, as well as the ſea that runs along the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of the country, muſt ſupply them with the greateſt plenty and variety of it. Beſides theſe, moſt of the great and rich people have large canals and ponds ſtocked with them for their own uſe; but the moſt curious in theſe kinds of fiſh-ponds, adorn them with one particular kind, which they call gold and ſilver fiſh, from their colour.

Gold and ſilver fiſh. This ſtrange and beautiful ſpecies is about the length of one's finger, and thick in proportion. The male is of a delicate red from the head to the middle, and from thence to the tail of a bright colour, which by far exceeds the fineſt gilding. The female is white, and has a tail like a noſegay, which, with part of its body, ſhines like poliſhed ſilver. They generally ſwim near the ſurface of the water, and give a moſt exquiſite reſplendency and variety to it, and they multiplied ſo faſt, that if care be not taken of their eggs, which float upon the water, the whole ſurface will be covered with them. Theſe eggs are exceedingly tender, and eaſily killed by heat or cold, ſtrong ſmells, thunder, or the report of a cannon; the way of preſerving them is to take them gently out of the water, and put them in ſmall veſſels, well ſheltered from wind, rain, and cold, till they are hatched by the ſun, and grown

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grown to about an inch in length; then, with ſafety, they may be removed into their primitive reſervoirs where they are juſtly admired as a wonder of nature.

The Chineſe have alſo plenty of ſugar, tobacco, and oil, extracted not from olives but from ſeeds; vaſt quantities of olives of a different kind from ours, yet of a fine taſte; though either unfit to produce, or not thought worth extracting oil from; and a variety of excellent wines, ſome from grapes, others from rice, others from quinces and other fruits, palm, and other trees. Camphor, ebony, ſanders-wood, oak, pine, and ather lofty and ſtrait trees, are found in great abundance, eſpecially on thoſe mountains, which are not otherwiſe cultivated. The low country abounds with variety of canes, junks, and bamboes of exquiſite beauty, together with vaſt quantities of medicinal roots, ſuch as china-root, rhubarb, ginſeng, and many more; and, among a vaſt variety of ſhrubs, that ſo much eſteemed of late in Europe, called tea. *Other products.*

All teas are the leaf of one and the ſame ſhrub; the ſuppoſition that green is from one kind of tree, and bohea from another, is a vulgar error; for they differ only as malt may do in being higher or ſlack dried, or being finer or coarſer. The tea-ſhrub is of the kind of our dog-tree, and its leaf of an auſtere, bitter, aſtringent taſte, without any aromatic warmth. It has very little oil in it, and that which it has is of the reſinous kind, and is narcotic and ſtupefactive. It has alſo but very little ſalt, and that is of a fixed kind. Beſides the general diviſion of teas into two ſorts, green and bohea, they are differently denominated and known by ſub-diſtinctions, according to the provinces or diſtricts where they grow, the period of ripeneſs when gathered, the ſize of the leaf, or the method of curing; as hyſon, imperial, bloom, congo, ſinglo, ſouchong, &c. The leaves, when immediately pulled from the ſhrub, are ſo extremely bitter, as to yield an infuſion which is very diſagreeable to the taſte; therefore, to abate this unpleaſing quality, the people, who are appointed in China to prepare them for uſe, infuſe them, ſoon after collecting, for a certain time in water, by which a portion of their bitter reſinous particles being taken away, they become to be ſo mild as to be pleaſant, and very engaging to the palate. After being infuſed, they are dried in the following manner: the bohea, which is made from the leaves when full ripe, and ready to fall from the tree ſpontaneouſly, being thus brought to a pro- *Tea.*

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per flavour by infuſion, is immediately dried by the ſun, or fire, ſo that it may be preſerved for uſe; therefore, as the tree or ſhrub which yielded it, incurs no detriment from the leaves being pulled off, as they were in a deciduous ſtate, this tea can be afforded at a cheaper price than the green; and this will account for the leaves of the bohea being darker in colour, and ſmaller in breadth; becauſe, being almoſt dry when they are collected, and then ſteeped in water, in curing they are higher dried, and ſo more contracted and corrugated than the green tea. This, on the contrary, is pulled from the ſame ſhrub in a more violent way, juſt as the leaf is expanded to full maturity; whereby the tree which produces it ſuffers ſo much detriment, that two or three years of reſpite are allowed it to recover its priſtine vigour; and the leaves it produces, in thoſe years of recovery, are collected when they fall, and prepared for the bohea; on which account the green tea is ſold at a higher price than the bohea; and the bloom tea ſtill much dearer than either. Green tea alſo becomes dearer by a more expenſive preparation; for, as ſoon as it is reduced to a proper pitch of flavour by the previous infuſion in water, it is immediately expoſed to the warm rays of the ſun, and carefully and aſſiduouſly turned for a convenient time; after which it is ſtrewed upon broad ſheets of copper, laid upon embers, where it is rolled and turned by the hands of proper perſons, who are armed with gloves of leather to protect them from the miſchief, to which they have found by experience, they are in this buſineſs expoſed, by the metallic efflorescence from which the green tea derives its more agreeable colour; and, according to general, but falſe eſtimation, its ſuperior excellency over the bohea: for, in things of this ſort, the deluſion or infatuation is almoſt univerſal, which prevails among Aſiatics and Europeans indiſcriminately, and engages them to make the conſideration of health ſubſervient to the gratification of the palate, and the delights of the eye: therefore, the verdant beauty of this artificial colour is more alluring, and more eſteemed, though often pernicious, than the brown hue of the bohea, which is prepared in a manner more conſiſtent with the ſimplicity of nature, and the ſafety of health. The Chineſe very rarely drink the green tea; and it is obſervable, that thoſe amongſt them who drink it to any exceſs, become tabid and die emaciated. In ſhort, the drinking of tea in general may be reckoned a

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great cauſe of the manifeſt effeminacy and diminutiveneſs of their perſons; for what other reaſon can we aſſign ſo probable, for the obvious conſtitutional difference between them and the more robuſt people, who live almoſt under the ſame latitude. If we alſo compare the nature of tea with the nature of Engliſh diet, no one can think it a proper vegetable for us, having no parts fit to be aſſimilated to our bodies; its eſſential ſalt does not hold moiſture enough to be united with the body of an animal; its oil is but very little, and that of the opiate kind; and therefore, it is ſo far from being nutritive, that it irritates and frets the nerves and fibres, exciting the expulſive faculty, ſo that the body may be leſſened and weakened, but cannot be increaſed and ſtrengthened by it. And, indeed, the nervous complaints, ſo frequent of late years, eſpecially among the weaker ſex, may be chiefly attributed to the uſe of this exotic beverage.

Brackiſh waters, and of ſtrange colours.

The Chineſe, it is ſaid, have been obliged to the uſe of tea for their common drink, ever ſince they had found by experiment, that nothing elſe could correct ſo well their waters, which are almoſt every where brackiſh. The moſt conſiderable of thoſe waters are, the Ky-am, or *Blue River*, which riſes in the kingdom of Tibet, and croſſes the country from eaſt to eaſt; the Ho-ambo, or *Yellow River*, becauſe, after rains eſpecially, it is of that colour, and extremely muddy. It riſes near the extremity of the mountains, which divide the province of Suchan from Tartary, near the frontiers of the mogul, and runs a courſe of above one thouſand nine hundred miles. There are many other great rivers of the ſame nature, alike rapid and muddy; ſome of which have great cataracts of a prodigious height, and make a noiſe like continued claps of thunder. There is one always as red as blood, another that glitters by night, occaſioned by the great quantity of precious ſtones contained in it, from which it ſtyled the Pearl River. There is a third near Fomin, which turns blue in harveſt, at which time the inhabitants are uſed to dye that colour. We are told of another near Pan-gau, whoſe waters are ſo light, that they will bear no timber: thoſe of another near Ching-tein, are ſaid to be ſweet-ſcented; and that called Kin-za, or *Golden River*, is ſo named from its great quantity of gold ſand. There is one in the province of Fokien, whoſe water is green, and is affirmed to turn iron into copper; thoſe who are witneſſes of the fact may believe it. That called Xo is ſaid to cure divers diſeaſes; but the moſt remarkable

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markable is one that yearly riſes upon a certain day, with ſuch a prodigious high tide before the city of Hang-chen, that multitudes of people croud from all parts, to ſee ſo ſurpriſing a phenomenon, which neither their own, nor European philoſophers, it is ſaid, have yet accounted for. Theſe waters ſupply the people of the inland parts with ſalt, which is made by paring off the ſuperficial earth of the muddy ſhores, drying it in the ſun, rubbing it ſmall, and throwing it into a pit, which they cover with ſalt-water, and afterwards draining it into jars, and boiling it till they bring it to a proper conſiſtence; but, in the maritime parts, they make ſalt of ſea-water, after the uſual way.

Mines, minerals, foſſils, &c. The mountains of China abound with variety of metals and minerals; among the former they have ſeveral mines of gold and ſilver; but their monarchs, they pretend, will not ſuffer the mines of ſilver to be wrought, that the people ſhould not be forced to ſuch ſlaviſh work: but it is more probable that they either keep them in caſe of need, or rather, perhaps, to keep down the price of labour, which would riſe in proportion to the quantity of circulating money. Their workmen in general have not above five farthings ſterling per day, and this is a ſufficient reaſon for the circulation of ſuch immenſe quantities of their produce and manufactures throughout the world.

As to the mines of gold, it ſeems, nothing more is done to them than gathering ſuch particles as are waſhed down by the rivers, and are found ſticking on the banks, or caught by fleeces, and other ſtrainers laid acroſs the water. Great multitudes of people live wholly upon this buſineſs, and, it is ſaid, large quantities of that metal are waſhed down from the mountains, and that even ſome is found among the ſand and mud of thoſe rivers. Their mountains have alſo mines of copper, lead, iron, and quickſilver, which are manufactured in great quantities, and with great neatneſs and curioſity. Beſides theſe, they have ſome others, which are mixed in a peculiar manner, and therefore kept as a great ſecret among them; ſuch, for inſtance, is that famed one, called tonbaga, or donbaga, which is of the colour of very pale braſs, or a dull kind of tin; they aſcribe ſeveral extraordinary virtues to it, particularly of expelling poiſon, ſtopping hemorrhages, and the like, by only wearing a ring or necklace made of it. Among other articles produced in their mountains, we may reckon likewiſe plenty of pitcoal, many ſalts, excellent quarries of ſtone, ſome of marble, and

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and ſo curiouſly variegated with landſkips and other natural reſemblances, as if drawn by deſign with a pencil. Several others ſorts are eſteemed for their fine colour and hardneſs, ſome of which bear a noble luſtre like diamonds; and others, when burnt, yield a metal, of which they make ſwords and other weapons. We are told of others of a precious kind, ſhaped like a ſwallow, and others of great efficacy in divers diſeaſes.

Earths and other curious articles.

The province of Quang-ſi is famed for a yellow earth, which has the virtue of expelling poiſon, and curing, by external application, the bite of venomous creatures. Some ſorts of earth they have of a fine vermillion colour, and others of a delicate white, which the ladies uſe for paints. In ſeveral places of the empire, they preſs a ſort of lime from the bark of a tree, which is tough like pitch, and which, when mixed with proper colours, ſerves to paint their houſes, cabinets, and other utenſils, and has a fine luſtre and ſmoothneſs like glaſs. This lime they call giran, but it is more commonly known amongſt us under the name of Japan-work, becauſe that which comes from Japan far exceeds any that is made in China, in luſtre, hardneſs, and fine variety of paintings. This ſecret the Chineſe are ſo jealous of having diſcovered by foreigners, that they have poiſoned ſeveral, and ſome of our nation, whom they ſuſpected to have pried too narrowly into it.

Singular ſort of wax.

Beſides the common bees-wax, they have another ſort, the cleareſt and whiteſt in the world, which is produced by an inſect no bigger than a flea, on the top of the branches of ſome particular trees, where theſe little creatures lay their eggs, which, in the ſpring, turn into ſmall worms. The proprietors of theſe trees gather this wax, and make it into cakes, which are quite tranſparent. The inhabitants of Xantum put theſe worms into large canes, and, by ſelling them to the adjacent provinces, make a conſiderable profit of them.

Diviſion of China.

The empire of China is divided into fifteen principle provinces, but moſt commonly into the following diſtinct parts or diſtricts. 1. North of the Great Wall are, Niuche, Corea, Laotonge, the chief towns of which are, Niuche, Petcheo, and Chinyam. 2. Within the Great Wall, and adjoining it, are Pekin, Xanſi, and Xenſi; the chief towns Pekin, Tayen, and Sigam. 3. On the coaſt of the Chineſian ſea; Xantum, Nanking, and Chekian; the chief towns, Chinchis, Nanking, Nimpo, and Chuſam. 4. Midland, comprehending Honan, Huquam, and Kiamſi; the chief towns Honan, Toangfu, and Nankan,

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kan. 5. Southern, as Fokien, Canton, and Quamſi; the chief towns, Fochen, Amoi, Canton, and Quelin. 6. Weſtern, as Suchuen, Quecheu, and Yunam; the chief town, Tchinteu, Queyang, Quecheu, and Yunam. 7. The Chineſian iſlands, which are Formoſa, Ainan, Macao, and the Baſhee iſlands, the chief towns of which are Tambay, Lincato, and Macao.

China was begun to be ſurveyed by the Jeſuit miſſionaries the 4th of July, 1708, and finiſhed the 1ſt of January, 1717. They determined the latitudes of above five hundred cities by obſervations, and their longitudes by the method of triangles; being alſo aſſiſted by maps and hiſtories preſerved in the tribunals of the cities, and the information of the mandarines, as well as the chiefs of the people through whoſe territories they paſſed.

Cities and towns deſcribed.

The cities and towns of China are all built in one form, as near as the ground will permit; that is, ſquare. Two great ſtreets, which croſs one another in the middle of the town, divide it into four quarters; and from the center the four principal gates may be ſeen at once. The gates ſtand due eaſt, weſt, north and ſouth. Pekin, the capital, conſiſts of two cities joined in one, by the name of old and new; the old is the Tartar, and the new the Chineſe city, which is the more populous. Both together are ſix leagues in circumference. Pekin is ſuppoſed to contain not leſs than two millions of inhabitants. Its walls are fifty cubits high, and defended by ſquare towers about a bow-ſhot diſtance from one another. Every gate of the town has a fortreſs or redoubt built before it, of equal height with the gate; the arches or gate-ways are built with marble, but the reſt of the walls with brick. The emperor's palace ſtands in the middle of the Tartar city, and is an oblong ſquare, about two miles in length and one in breadth, defended by a good wall. Without the gates of every town there are uſually two magnificent towers erected, and near each tower is a temple of idols, and another dedicated to the genius and guardian angel of the place. In almoſt every city are triumphal arches, built to the honour of ſome great men who have been benefactors to their country; and colleges and temples founded in memory of their great philoſopher Confucius, where his precepts are taught. Without the gates of Nanking (formerly the capital of China before the imperial reſidence took place at Pekin) there are two towers built alike, in the form of a cone. One of them is called the Porcelane Tower, being faced therewith on the outſide. It is of an octangular figure, contains nine ſtories, and

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and is two hundred feet high. Above the eighth ſtory there is a cupola, which riſes thirty feet higher than the tower, and on the top is a very large golden ball. This tower has ſtood above three hundred years, appears very beautiful, and is ſaid to be the beſt contrived and nobleſt ſtructure in the Eaſt. There is ſcarce a city or village in the whole empire, eſpecially in the ſouthern provinces, but enjoys the benefit of ſome navigable river, lake, canal, or arm of the ſea, inſomuch, that almoſt as many people live upon the water as on land. Wherever there is a town on ſhore, there is another of boats upon the water, and many people are born, live, and die upon the water, keeping hogs, poultry, dogs, and other domeſtic animals on board. Beſides theſe veſſels, there are a prodigious number of floats of timber, perpetually going up the rivers and canals, which carry whole villages of people upon them. Some of theſe floats are a mile in length; the proprietors build little huts on them, where they live till they have diſpoſed of their timber, which they carry ſometimes a thouſand miles by water; and thus every part of this extenſive empire has an eaſy communication with the other; which is a great advantage to trade.

Great Wall.

The Great Wall, which ſeparates China from Tartary, begins in the province of Xenſi, which lies on the north-weſt of China, in about 38 deg. north latitude, and is carried over mountains and vallies, and terminates at the Kang Sea, between the provinces of Pekin and Laotonge. The whole courſe of it, with all the windings, is about fifteen hundred miles. It is almoſt all built with brick, and ſuch well tempered mortar, that it has now ſtood about eighteen hundred years, being very little decayed. It was built by the emperor Chihohamti, to prevent the incurſions of the Tartars. Its height is about thirty feet, and it is broad enough for eight people to ride a-breaſt. It is fortified all along by ſquare towers, at the diſtance of a mile from each other.

The Jeſuits have computed that there are in China one hundred and fifty-five capital cities, one thouſand three hundred and twelve of the ſecond rank, two thouſand three hundred and fifty-ſeven fortified towns, ten millions of families, and fifty millions of people.

Name of China.

China is reckoned by moſt geographers to have been the country of the ancient Sinæ mentioned by Ptolemy, and ſo called from one of its ancient monarchs, named Chin, or Cina, who is ſaid to have reigned here above fifty years before the birth of Chriſt. But this country boaſts a much older date; and though it might receive its name

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name from that monarch, it had probaby many others before, as it had ſince; for it is a maxim in this empire, that when the government falls from one family to another, the firſt prince of the new always gives his name to the whole country. We are alſo told, that there have been no leſs than twenty-two ſuch families, who have each changed its name for their own. Some, therefore, think from thence, and with good reaſon, that it had the name of China from its great produce of ſilk, which is here the fineſt in the world, and is manufactured with great elegance and variety.

When and by whom diſcovered.

The Portugueſe diſcovered this remote and opulent country ſomewhat more than two hundred years ago. It was indeed, in ſome meaſure, known to the ancients, under the name of Seres, and ſome commerce was carried on between them; but the large ſandy deſarts and inacceſſible mountains that lie between it and India, its great diſtance from Europe, and the old Chineſe policy of not admitting ſtrangers among them, or ſuffering their own people to go into other countries, made it impoſſible for Greeks, Romans, or any other nation on this ſide the Ganges, to know any thing of this country, or its inhabitants, except what they might gueſs by the commodities brought from thence, which were but few in compariſon to its preſent exports. It is true, Paul the Venetian's account of Cambalu, which, in all probability, was the city of Pekin, and his mighty character of the cham and his ſubjects, is now by all applied to China; but it was then underſtood of Tartary, and ſo continued till the diſcovery of China by the Portugueſe, who opened, by their great improvements in navigation, a new way to, and commerce with it. They were ſo greatly ſurpriſed at its opulent condition, and the excellent genius and politeneſs of its inhabitants, conſidering them as a people that lived entirely within themſelves, and had received no helps or inſtructions from other nations, that the reports they made of them at firſt appeared more like romance than truth. But we cannot be ſaid to have been fully acquainted with the true ſtate of the Chineſe nation, till the zeal of the miſſionaries of the church of Rome excited them to go and preach the Goſpel among them. The Jeſuits and others, who were firſt intended for this miſſion in 1589, being informed that the Chineſe had but an imperfect inſight into the mathematical ſciences, took care, before they ſet out, to make themſelves thorough maſters of them, in order by that means, to recommend themſelves to the Chineſe gentry and nobility, who

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who ſhewed a particular fondneſs for that kind of ſtudy. Accordingly they took with them the beſt maps, globes, ſpheres, and other mathematical inſtruments; and, in a a ſhort time, ſhewed a ſkill in thoſe ſciences, eſpecially aſtronomy and navigation, ſo far ſuperior to that of the Chineſe, that they eaſily introduced themſelves into the acquaintance and favour of perſons of the higheſt rank, the emperor not excepted, who raiſed ſome of them to the dignity of mandarins, or *lords of the council*; allotted them apartments in the royal palace, and gave them all manner of encouragement, even to a full permiſſion of propagating their religion all over his dominions. It is, therefore, to theſe gentlemen that we are indebted for our preſent knowlege of China, though their accounts did not gain ſo univerſal a credit, many things having been thought exaggerated by them, till they had been for the moſt part confirmed to us by perſons of our own, and other nations.

Original of the Chineſe.

The origin of the Chineſe nation may be juſtly conſidered in the ſame light as the ſpring-head of the Nile, or other ſuch rivers; and what their popular traditions ſay of it deſerves no leſs to be exploded by men of ſenſe, ſince they pretend to an antiquity anterior, not only to the flood, but even to the creation. Some of the tranſlators of the Chineſe hiſtory aſcribe the foundation of this monarchy to Fohi, who is there ſaid to have began his reign about two thouſand nine hundred and fifty-two years before Chriſt. This Fohi is affirmed to have been the firſt who reduced mankind into ſocieties, and to have taught them agriculture and other ſocial arts, which were afterwards improved by his ſucceſſors. Among theſe, Hoam-ti, ſurnamed the Yellow Emperor, becauſe he aſſumed that colour, ſince become peculiar to the imperial dignity, rectified the Chineſe cycle, invented muſic and muſical inſtruments, navigation, fiſhing, arms, and other arts. His queen, at the ſame time, is ſaid to have invented the raiſing and feeding of ſilk-worms, and to have laid the foundation of that noble manufacture. Theſe two are ſuppoſed to have reigned two thouſand ſix hundred and ninety-ſeven years before Chriſt. Xao Hao, their ſucceſſor, began to build cities, and to ſurround them with walls; and, for the more expeditious bringing together of proper materials for building, contrived the way of conveying them by carts, drawn by oxen. He died, according to the ſame chronology, two thouſand five hundred and ſeventeen years before Chriſt; and his nephew and ſucceſſor Choven Hio, made a law, that none but the emperor

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emperor of the world ſhould ſacrifice to the emperor of heaven. He reformed the calendar, and ordered it to begin at the neareſt new moon to the ſpring ſeaſon. Ticho, his nephew, who ſucceeded him two thouſand four hundred and fifty-ſeven years before Chriſt, is ſaid to have been the inventor of vocal muſic, in which he received no ſmall help from his four wives. Theſe ſix princes were followed by the two famed emperors and lawgivers, Yo and Xoun, from whom the Chineſe received their civil and religious inſtitutes. Theſe two reigned one hundred and fifty years, which joined to the reigns of the other ſix, make, in all, ſeven hundred and thirty-ſeven years; and from theſe eight perſons deſcended the following imperial families:

1. Of Hia, of which there were ſeventeen emperors, who reigned four hundred and fifty-eight years. 2. Of Xam, including twenty-eight emperors, and ſix hundred and forty-four years. 3. Cheou, thirty-five emperors, eight hundred and ſeventy-three years. 4. Chin, three emperors, forty-three years. 5. Han, twenty-ſeven emperors, four hundred and twenty-ſix years. 6. Hau-hun, two emperors, forty-four years. 7. Chin II. fifteen emperors, one hundred and fifty-five years. 8. Soum, ſeven emperors, fifty-nine years. 9. Chi, five emperors, twenty-three years. 10. Leam, four emperors, fifty-five years. 11. Kin, five emperors, thirty-two years. 12. Soui, three emperors, twenty-nine years. 13. Tam, twenty emperors, eighty-nine years. 14. Heou-eam, two emperors, ten years. 15. Heou-tam, four emperors, thirteen years. 16. Heou-chin, two emperors, eleven years. 17. Heou-han, two emperors, four years. 18. Heou-cheou, three emperors, nine years. 19. Soum II. eighteen emperors, three hundred and twenty-nine years. 20. Yoven, nine emperors, eighty-nine years. 21. Mim, twenty-one emperors, two hundred and ſeventy-ſix years. 22. Chim, two emperors, fifty-three years. This was the laſt family that reigned before the late conqueſt of China by one of the Tartar princes.

M. de Voltaire tells us [p], that the Chineſe hiſtory is inconteſtible, being founded on celeſtial obſervations, and traced by the moſt accurate chronology, ſo high as an eclipſe calculated two thouſand one hundred and fifty-five years before our vulgar æra, which the reverend miſſionaries, ſkilled in mathematical learning, have confirmed. To

[p] In his Introduction to the General Hiſtory and State of Europe.

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this account we can by no means assent, for these reasons:

Voltaire's opinion concerning the antiquity of the Chinese refuted.

First, it is well known the Chinese make use of no letters, but represent words by arbitrary marks, which renders their characters too numerous to be retained by the memory, makes writing very tedious, and the knowlege of what is written to be attended with infinite obscurity and confusion, as the connection between these marks and the words they represent, cannot be retained in books, but must be delivered down by oral tradition. The history and inventions of past ages must, therefore, be frequently unintelligible, and the learning and boasted antiquity of this nation, in many instances, extremely problematical.

Secondly, the Chinese themselves are not agreed in setling the antiquities of their country; for there are some who fix the original of their empire hundreds of thousands of years before the creation. This opinion prevails among the vulgar. Some make Fohi the founder of the kingdom two thousand nine hundred and fifty-two years before the birth of Christ. Another set of learned men maintain, that the foundations of this kingdom were laid about four thousand twenty-five years since, by a certain prince named Yas. This last opinion is looked upon as an article of faith; and if a Chinese should publicly deny it, he would be esteemed a heretic, and severely punished. The Jesuits are obliged to adopt this opinion upon pain of death, and obtained leave from the pope to stick to the Septuagint version, which agrees with it better than the Hebrew.

Thirdly, the Chinese chronology is very uncertain and fictitious. Father du Halde, a zealous admirer of it, offers nothing in its defence, except an eclipse of the sun, which happened in the reign of Chong-kang, two thousand one hundred and fifty-five years before the commencement of the Christian æra. But M. Maigrot, bishop of Koxon, with great reason, believes the chronology of ancient times among the Chinese to be very uncertain and precarious; as also that the Chinese annalist, Chuhi, has adjusted both the years and eclipses solely according to his own fancy. Of this no one can doubt, who considers that the Chinese were little versed in astronomy, even when the Jesuits first came among them; and that they were so far from being able to calculate an eclipse, or even likely to make any celestial observations,

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two thouſand one hundred and fifty-five years before the birth of Chriſt, that they probably knew as little then of any thing relating to eclipſes, and the other heavenly phænomena, as the bulk of mankind, or even the moſt illiterate nations at preſent do.

Fourthly, If China had been ſo large, rich, and learned an empire as it is pretended, the Perſians would moſt certainly not have remained in utter ignorance of it, when their emperors had made part of India tributary to them, which was a country contiguous to China; and yet we find that there was not the leaſt intimation of this people till the time of Alexander the Great, who penetrated into India, and even then we find nothing of moment relating to them.

Fifthly, The Chineſe obſervations of the heavens are frequently fictitious; for, as father Martini informs us, the ſun, according to the Chineſe, had not ſet for ten years. Can any one be ſo ſanguine as to believe this to be a real obſervation? Will not this invalidate their other obſervations, when they exceed all belief, or at leaſt have not a proper degree of probability? Nothing is, therefore, more chimerical than the concluſion drawn from the eclipſe two thouſand one hundred and fifty-five years before the birth of Chriſt, in ſupport of antiquity equally abſurd and romantic.

Sixthly, The Chineſe have no hiſtorical records, but only fragments of their claſſical or canonical books; and thoſe, we may ſuppoſe, greatly corrupted; for the emperor Shi-wangti, in the year before Chriſt two hundred and thirteen, ordered all the copies of books in his empire, except thoſe written by lawyers and phyſicians, to be burnt, which was done accordingly. Nay, he ordered many learned men to be buried alive the next year, leſt they ſhould invent a method of tranſmitting to poſterity the hiſtorical memoirs of the empire, which he was reſolved to annihilate.

Seventhly, Confucius in his time complained of the want of genuine hiſtorical memoirs, and yet the Jeſuits and modern Chineſe pretend to give us authentic memoirs of the monarchs of China, who lived two thouſand years before that philoſopher. This is a moſt abſurd pretenſion, as evidently appears from the tranſlation M. Bayer has given us of the Chun Quieu of Confucius. This contains a moſt crude, jejune account of the Chineſe dynaſties and reguli preceding his own age, and deſerves not the name of a hiſtory.

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If the Chun Quieu be as old as Confucius, it was written about five hundred years before the birth of Chriſt. If ſo learned a man could write no better, or had no better materials, what can we think of thoſe who lived in the remoteſt ages? But there is the greateſt reaſon to think that this book is far from being genuine or coeval with Confucius; for the Chineſe records were deſtroyed about two hundred and ſixty-ſeven years after the death of Confucius; and we may juſtly believe that but a ſmall part of his hiſtorical works is now remaining. This ſingle remark is enough to deſtroy the authority of thoſe romantic accounts of the firſt emperors of China, which the modern Chineſe and their adherents would impoſe on us. M. de Voltaire ſhould not, therefore, have endeavoured to eſtabliſh an opinion as inconteſtable, which he muſt certainly know has been greatly controverted, and, in the opinion of the moſt learned and candid judges, fully confuted.

By whom firſt peopled.

The Chineſe monarchy, great as it is, muſt of conſequence be ſuppoſed, like all others, to have had but a ſmall beginning; eſpecially as their more authentic accounts date its infancy only about two or three hundred years after the flood. About this time, it is probable, ſome of Noah's children, or grand-children, having penetrated through the eaſtern parts of Aſia, ſettled on that fertile and delightful ſpot which is on the ſouth-eaſt part of China. Fohi, the founder of the Chineſe monarchy, from the reſemblance of names and other circumſtances, has been ſuppoſed by ſeveral learned men of our own and other nations, to have been the ſame with Noah; and, ſome have gone even ſo far as to ſuppoſe this patriarch to have been the firſt planter of China juſt after the flood, and that the Ararat mentioned by Moſes, on which the ark reſted, was not that ridge ſo called in Armenia, but one of thoſe which divide India from China.

Chineſe ſubdued by the Tartars.

The Chineſe have been governed ſince the year 1645 by Tartar princes. Two factions in China having engaged the whole empire in a civil war, the weaker called in the cham of Niuche, a little Tartarian kingdom, to their aſſiſtance. This prince had no ſooner enabled his allies to cruſh their enemies than he took an occaſion to pick a quarrel with the party that called him in, and made an entire conqueſt of the country, where he ſo well eſtabliſhed himſelf, that his poſterity ſtill remains in peaceable poſſeſſion of the throne. As he was very ſenſible his Tartars were much inferior to the Chineſe in number, he oblig-

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ed all the Chineſe ſoldiers, eſpecially thoſe who had liſted amongſt his troops, to cut off their hair, and change their habits to the Tartar faſhion, in order, that being looked upon as Tartars, they might over-awe the reſt. This he extended immediately after to the Chineſe in general; and had it not been for this politic proceeding, the Chineſe would ſoon have been ſenſible of their ſuperiority, and put an end to the Tartar uſurpation. But what contributed ſtill more to the eſtabliſhment of the Tartars, was their employing the Chineſe both in their civil and military affairs; they advanced the moſt popular of the grandees to be viceroys and governors of provinces, and ſo made them acceſſary to ſubduing their own country; they remitted to the people one third of their taxes, governed them by their own laws, and delivered them from that tyranny the great men uſed to exerciſe over them; ſo that, except in the matter of their hair and habits, the Tartars ſeem rather to have ſubmitted to the laws of the Chineſe, than to have impoſed any upon them; and Tartary may now be ſaid rather to be ſubject to China, than China to Tartary; for in China is the ſeat of the empire; there the ſupreme courts of juſtice are held; there all the wealth of the united kingdoms centers; there all honours and degrees are conferred: whence China may be ſaid to have gained a great addition of ſtrength by Tartary, and has now no enemy to fear. Their indigent northern neighbours are under the ſame ſovereign, who keeps them ſo much in ſubjection, that they are no longer in a condition to diſturb China. The petty Tartar kings, as they are called, are no more than his viceroys, or governors of provinces; and the emperor has forts and garriſons through their whole country. The late emperor Canghi is the grandſon of Xunchi, or Tſoute, the Tartarian prince, who conquered China, now upwards of a hundred years ago. At his acceſſion in 1722, he took upon him the name of Yong Ching, which ſignifies *Laſting Peace*. The empire of China is hereditary, unleſs the reigning emperor makes an alteration in the ſucceſſion, which he cannot do without the concurrence of his great council, which conſiſts of the princes of the blood and great officers of ſtate.

Government, nobility, forces, revenues.

The emperor of China is as deſpotic and arbitrary as any oriental prince, for he has an abſolute power over the lives and fortunes of all his ſubjects, the princes of the blood not exepted. His will is a law, and his commands admit of no delay or neglect under ſevere penalties. Not-

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withſtanding, his government is one of the moſt regular in the world, and the tribunals and magiſtracy are eſtabliſhed in the moſt exact and uniform manner that can be contrived for the adminiſtration of juſtice, and the due performance of all the offices of a well regulated government. For the better managing the great affairs of his vaſt empire, he is aſſiſted by two ſovereign councils, which ſit at Pekin, the capital; the one ſtyled extraordinary, and compoſed of princes of the blood only, and the other ordinary, which, beſides thoſe princes, conſiſts of ſeveral mandarins, and other miniſters of ſtate, called Colaos. Six other ſuperior tribunals are held in the ſame city for civil and military affairs; to each belongs a different employ or inſpection, and their authority extends over all the empire. Every mandarin, or governor, is obliged to tranſmit to court an account of his adminiſtration annually, and is ſeverely puniſhed if he endeavours to palliate any miſcarriages; but as corruption prevails to a great degree in China, he that can bribe higheſt is morally ſure of gaining his point. Except the princes of the blood and tributary kings, there is at preſent no hereditary nobility among the Chineſe, or any diſtinction but what their places and offices, or ſuperior wealth or learning, create. The forces of the empire are ſaid to amount to five millions, which are a kind of militia, called out only as the exigences of the ſtate require. They have no naval force, though they have a ſea-coaſt of ſeveral thouſand miles; and their ſkill in navigation is trifling, if compared to that of the Europeans. The revenues of the empire are ſaid to amount to upwards of twenty millions ſterling per annum.

Religion and learning.

The religion of the Chineſe is groſs idolatry, or rather they are ſaid to worſhip one ſupreme God, and ſeveral inferior deities, who appear to have been men eminent in their ſeveral ages, particularly the inventors of arts and ſciences. They alſo worſhip things inanimate, as mountains, woods, and rivers, but never ſacrifice to vice, as is cuſtomary with other Pagans. There are three ſects in China at this day: firſt, the followers of Li-laokun, who lived, they ſay, above five hundred years before Chriſt. He taught that God was corporeal, and had many ſubordinate deities under his government. His diſciples ſtudy magic, and pretend to make that drink which will give men immortality. The ſecond is the ſect of the learned, or diſciples of the ſo much celebrated Confucius, who left

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many admirable precepts of morality, and inſtructed the people in philoſophy. He ſpeaks of God as a moſt pure and perfect principle, and the fountain and eſſence of all beings. Though we are told he prohibited idolatry, he has temples and images erected to him, and is worſhipped with the profoundeſt adoration, as appears from the pope's decree againſt the Jeſuits for allowing their converts to mingle this idolatrous worſhip with that of Chriſtianity. The third ſect, which is the worſhippers of the idol Fo, or Fohi, the founder of the Chineſe nation, is much more numerous than either of the former. They ſtyle him the only ſaviour of the world. His prieſts teach ſeveral moral precepts, and a ſtate of rewards and puniſhments after this life. The puniſhments conſiſt chiefly in animating ſome vermin or beaſt of burden after life; whence, it ſeems, the doctrine of the tranſmigration of ſouls has been long known to them. The Chineſe, beſides, have an image of immortality, which they worſhip in the form of a monſtrous fat man, ſitting croſs-legged, with a huge prominent belly. There is another called the idol of pleaſure, about twenty feet high; and between theſe, in their temples, is another large image, thirty feet high, gilded over with a crown upon his head, and richly dreſſed; this they call the Great Kang, to whom they pay adoration. The emperor being of Tartar deſcent, follows the idolatry of this nation, which does not differ much from that of the Chineſe, except that they worſhip a living man, whom they ſtyle the Great Lama. They give him the name of Eternal Father, and all the eaſtern Tartars have the greateſt veneration for him. He is ſhewn in a dark place in his palace, illuminated with lamps. That he may be thought immortal, his prieſts chuſe one out of their number as like him as poſſible, who ſucceeds him when he dies. None of his votaries doubt of his living for ever. His urine and excrements are held as ſacred, and are diſtributed in preſents to the Tartar princes, who mix them up as ſomething very delicious in the ſauces of their food. The Chriſtian religion made a great progreſs in China about a hundred years ago. The Jeſuits relate they had two hundred churches and chapels there; but falling out with the other miſſionaries, and endeavouring to ruin each other, they were all in general baniſhed the kingdom by the preſent monarch, and their proſelytes were compelled by him to renounce Chriſtianity. We are told, that Chriſtianity

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ſtianity was firſt planted in China and the Indies, either by the apoſtle St. Thomas, or by ſome of his diſciples. The Chineſe records ſeem to intimate, that a man came there about that time, who preached a heavenly doctrine, and confirmed it by miracles. In an ancient Chaldee breviary of the church of Malabar, the converſion of the Chineſe is attributed to that apoſtle. There is alſo an ancient marble pillar raiſed in the province of Xen-ſi, in memory of a man that brought Chriſtianity thither in the year 636. However, the miſſionaries of the church of Rome, did not find, as we learn, the leaſt veſtige of Chriſtianity remaining in China when they came there. As to the learning of the Chineſe, it ſeems wholly confined to the ſtudy of their own language. Their characters are a ſort of ſhort-hand. Every character ſignifies a word or ſentence. They have not to this day the uſe of letters. There are upwards of twenty thouſand of theſe characters, and their moſt learned men are ſcarce maſters of all of them. Thoſe in common uſe do not exceed three thouſand, which are underſtood in every part of the empire. They write from the top to the bottom of the page. This great number of characters is reducible to a pure and ſimple alphabet, like any other language; for a Chineſe character is no more than a word written with its proper conſonants and vowels; not indeed at length, as we do, but intermingled one with another, by ſome peculiar method known only to them, or perhaps only to the learned among them, and concealed from the vulgar, and more eſpecially from ſtrangers. It would be no difficult matter to imitate the Chineſe method of writing, in ours, or any other European language, by joining and intermingling the vowels and conſonants of each word in the ſame or ſuch like order as they do theirs, that is, by making the firſt letter the chief and largeſt character, and placing the reſt regularly round it, either jointly or ſeparately. In all other reſpects the Chineſe are not near ſo learned as reported. They were almoſt as bad aſtronomers, geographers, and muſicians as any of their barbarous neighbours, before the miſſionaries came amongſt them; and whatever proficiency they have ſince made in logic, natural philoſophy, geometry, anatomy, or any art or ſcience, was entirely owing to the inſtructions they received from the ſame miſſionaries. They are ſtill ſo fond of their old aſtrology, that they mark the lucky and unlucky days in their almanacs; and, indeed, they are ſuch ſuperſtitious obſervers of times, and

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rely ſo much on the predictions of their aſtrologers and fortune-tellers, that they govern moſt of their actions by the direction of ſuch people, and will not undertake a journey, or any buſineſs of moment, without conſulting them.

Perſons, habits, cuſtoms, character, genius, &c. of the Chineſe.

The Chineſe are generally of a moderate ſtature, broad faces, black hair, ſmall black eyes, ſhort noſes, and thin beards. Their complexions incline to tawny near the tropic; but in the north they are as fair as other people under the ſame parallel. The women are remarkable for their little feet, being eſteemed their greateſt beauty. In order to keep them little, they are bound up from their infancy ſo tight, that they cannot grow to the common ſize; the foot of a full grown woman is not much bigger than a child's of four years old. The men wear a bell-ſhaped cap on their heads, which does not cover their ears; they alſo wear a veſt and ſaſh, and over the veſt a looſe coat or gown, and a kind of ſilk boots quilted with cotton. When they are at home among their friends, they throw off every thing but a pair of drawers, and appear as naked as the common people about the ſtreets; but this muſt be underſtood of the ſouthern provinces. The women dreſs with their hair down, and keep nothing on their head, in the ſouth. They generally wear a ſilk veſt, red, blue, or green, and over it a looſe gown, with white ſleeves, and embroidered ſilk ſhoes, but by reaſon of the ſmallneſs of their feet, hobble prodigiouſly when they walk. In moſt other countries mutual conſent conſtitutes the validity of marriage; but there is no ſuch thing in China. The parties never ſee each other till the bargain is concluded by the parents, which uſually happens when they are perfect children; nor is the woman's conſent ever demanded afterwards. Great pomp is uſed in the marriage-ceremonies. The bride brings no dowry, but is rather purchaſed by the ſpouſe, who, beſides the price he pays for her, commonly ſpends very conſiderably on the nuptial feaſt, and makes a very ſplendid and coſtly cavalcade in bringing her home. This is the conſtant cuſtom of the rich; but the poorer ſort, who cannot afford to pay money for a wife, go to ſome of their foundling hoſpitals, and beg for one, which is ſeldom denied; and this both ſaves charges, and makes the wife commonly more ſubmiſſive to her huſband. In regard to the treatment of perſons that die, there is ſcarce any country where grief is manifeſted to ſo great a degree, eſpecially for a near relation, or where mourning is ſo deep or continued

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ſo long. Every Chineſe keeps in his houſe a table, whereon are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great-grandfather, before which they frequently burn incenſe, and proſtrate themſelves; and when the father of a family dies, the great-grandfather is taken away, and the deceaſed added to make up the number. No perſons are ever buried within the walls of a town or city, nor is a dead corpſe ever ſuffered to be brought into them, if the perſon dies in the country. Mountains and ſolitary places are generally choſen by the great men to build their ſepulchres in; and ſome of them are ſaid to be little inferior to palaces. If the ſepulchre is erected in a plain they raiſe a great heap of earth over it, which they carry almoſt to the height of a mountain.

The Chineſe are exceeding fond of ſhows and magnificence, an inſtance of which we ſhall here give in an account of a feſtival not long ſince ſolemnized in their country. It has been an ancient cuſtom among them to celebrate the ſixtieth year of the emperor's mother with moſt amazing pomp. The laſt three months of the year 1751, were taken up in making preparations for this approaching grand feſtival. All the painters ſculptors, architects, muſicians, and carpenters of Pekin and the neighbouring provinces, were employed, each in executing ſome maſter-piece of his reſpective art. The main object was to charm the eyes and ears of the moſt delicate and voluptuous court in the univerſe. The whole diſtance from one of the emperor's houſes of pleaſure to his palace in the center of the Tartar city in Pekin, being about twelve Engliſh miles, was to be decorated in the moſt ſuperb manner; and as the proceſſion would be, in great part, along the river, it was foreſeen, that the barks conſtructed to carry the emperor, the empreſs-mother, and the whole court, were likely to be of very little uſe, on account of the ice, the time of the ceremony falling out in the moſt rigorous ſeaſon of the year. However, certain mandarins undertook the removal of theſe obſtacles, by employing, night and day, for more than three weeks together, ſome thouſands of hands in continually beating the ſurface of the water to prevent its freezing, and a like number in breaking the ice already formed; but, in ſpite of all theſe precautions, the cold prevailed, the whole river was ſet faſt, and the project abandoned. The principal director of this fruitleſs enterprize was mulcted two years ſalary, and obliged to furniſh ſledges inſtead of the barks. Both ſides of the river

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river were covered with edifices of divers forms, which gave a ſtriking pleaſure to the beholders. On ſuch parts of the river as were wider than the reſt, wooden houſes were erected upon piles, and diſpoſed in groups to which bridges conducted; the whole gilded, painted, and moſt ſuperbly ornamented. In ſome were choirs of muſicians, in others companies of comedians, and in others magnificent thrones, with all varieties of refreſhments for the emperor and his mother, if they ſhould be pleaſed to ſtop there. In the city, from the gate of entry quite on to the palace, were grand buildings, periſtyles, pavilions, colonades, galleries, and amphitheatres, with numberleſs rich trophies. Factitious jewels ſparkled in all parts, and the gaudy objects were reflectedand multiplied by an infinite number of little mirrors of poliſhed metal. Theſe glittering edifices were here and there interrupted by artificial mountains and vallies, cattle, trees, and fountains; in other places with gardens ſtocked with fruits and flowers of every ſeaſon of the year, which, though artificial, could hardly be diſtinguiſhed from natural, ſo exquiſite was the illuſion. In ſome places rocks aroſe, and children clothed in ſkins, played the part of monkies and other animals, ſkipping from cliff to cliff. Some weeks before the ceremony the ſtreets were divided into three parts, of which the middle was deſtined for thoſe who rode on horſeback or in carriages; one of the ſides for perſons advancing forwards, and the other for thoſe who were returning. A number of ſoldiers, armed only with ſtaves, prevented all diſorder and confuſion; and as women never intermix with men in the ſtreets, the emperor appointed certain days for them alone. The preſents made on this occaſion, in a great meaſure, equalled the magnificence of the ſpectacle. The Europeans diſtinguiſhed themſelves by a moſt ingeniouſly contrived piece of machinery, with which the emperor was ſo highly delighted, that he cauſed it to be depoſited in his palace, and frequently amuſed himſelf in viſiting it. The expence of this pompous entertainment exceeded three hundred millions of roupees, and it was graced with the preſence of the two imperial perſonages on the 6th of January, 1752.

The Chineſe are undoubtedly a very ingenious and induſtrious people, as appears by all their fine manufactures daily brought into Europe; ſuch as their wrought ſilks, cabinets, and other japannery, their curious porcelaine; though in this they are excelled by the Japaneſe, and are ſtill likely to be more ſo by the Saxons and Germans,

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mans, where a manufacture has not long ſince been ſet up, which exceeds them both, eſpecially in the beauty of the painting. The admirable cultivation of their land, their great and many canals, and variety of magnificent ſtructures, are farther teſtimonies of their genius and induſtry; to which we may add, what ſeems now generally agreed on all hands, that they have had the uſe of the mariner's compaſs, of gunpowder, and the art of printing, for many centuries, inſomuch that ſome are of opinion, that they were all three brought from thence to Europe, either by Paul the Venetian, or by ſome other channel. And, indeed, with reſpect to the laſt, whoever conſiders that the firſt eſſay of Fauſtus, who invented, or rather improved that art, was done upon wooden blocks, in the ſame way as has been done in China from time immemorial, will be apt to own that theirs gave the firſt notions to Europeans, though they have ſince ſo infinitely ſurpaſſed them. They are likewiſe maſters of ſeveral arts and ſciences, though not to the perfection we are; but they value themſelves extravagantly, and deſpiſe others highly, which is a great blemiſh to their characters. To this we may add, that they are of a moſt inſinuating addreſs, and will not decline the moſt hazardous enterprizes where there is a proſpect of gain. The men of figure are perpetually engaged in purſuit of places and preferments, which they procure by bribes, or preſents, as they are called. Their laws oblige them to certain rules of civility in their words and actions; but they are naturally a fawning, cringing generation, and the greateſt hypocrites on the face of the earth. Trade and commerce, or rather cheating and over-reaching, ſeems to be the natural bent and genius of this people: gain is their god, they prefer it to every thing. A ſtranger is in great danger of being cheated if he truſts to his own judgment; and if he employs a Chineſe broker, it is well if he does not join with the merchant to impoſe on the ſtranger.

State of the Chineſe trade.

The Chineſe, from the remoteſt antiquity, exported the growth and commodities of their country, chiefly raw ſilk, wherein it abounds, all over the Eaſt. It is from thence they were, by the Greeks and Romans, called Seres. Under the reigns of ſome former emperors, China was, as Japan now is, ſhut up, and kept from all commerce with foreign nations, and the inhabitants ſtrictly forbid, under ſevere penalties, to export the growth of the country, or to have any communication with their neighbours. Things ſtood thus, when the late Tartarian conqueror,

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queror, thinking it would very much conduce to the honour of his ſubjects, and the advantage of his dominions, for the future to permit a free and undiſturbed commerce, reſolved to ſuffer his ſubjects to trade abroad, and to give free acceſs to his dominions. The Europeans purchaſe the merchandize of China with bullion, or foreign coin, which is taken by weight, the Chineſe pound containing ſixteen ounces.

As there is a great affinity between the religion, cuſtoms, books, learned languages, arts, and ſciences of the Chineſe and their neighbours the Japaneſe, and as the Japaneſe iſlands make an entire and conſiderable empire, we may, with ſome propriety, deſcribe them here.

Japan deſcribed. The great and opulent country of Japan, which has the title of empire juſtly given it, as being divided into many diſtinct dominions, ſtyled kingdoms, under one monarch or emperor of the whole, is ſituate on the moſt eaſtern, and moſt remote part of Aſia from us, in all our hemiſphere, and, conſequently, the place where the riſing ſun is firſt ſeen; and being above one hundred and thirty degrees from us, they have their morning, noon, and other times of the day, at leaſt eight hours before us. The Europeans call it Japan, but the inhabitants Niphon, from the greateſt iſland belonging to it, and the Chineſe Siphon, probably, on account of its eaſtern ſituation; theſe names ſignifying in both languages, the baſis or foundation of the ſun. Though it has but one general name, it muſt not, therefore, be imagined to be one continued track of land, or one ſingle iſland; for it conſiſts of ſeveral large ones, beſides a number of ſmall. Niphon is by much the moſt conſiderable of the reſt, reaching from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, about nine hundred miles, and in breadth, in ſome parts near three hundred and ſixty miles. The whole empire, excluſive of the ſmall iſlands that lie ſcattered at a diſtance, conſiſts of three principal ones, Niphon, Ximo, and Xi-Coco; they extend almoſt eleven degrees, that is, from latitude 30 deg. to almoſt 41 deg. and from eaſt to weſt almoſt 17 deg. that is, from 130 deg. to 147 deg. of eaſt longitude.

Almoſt all the coaſts of this extenſive empire are ſurrounded with ſuch high and craggy mountains, and ſuch ſhallow and boiſterous ſeas, that ſailing about them is extremely hazardous; and the creeks and bays are choaked up with ſuch rocks, ſhelves, and ſands, that it looks as if Providence had deſigned it to be a kind of little world by itſelf; and this may beſt account, perhaps, for the firſt peopling

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peopling of thoſe iſlands. The Chineſe do indeed pretend, that they were firſt peopled by themſelves; but it is more probable, their original inhabitants were a mixture of different nations, driven thither by thoſe tempeſtuous ſeas, and at different times; and this appears from the great difference obſervable between the preſent inhabitants, in regard to features, complexions, ſhapes, habits, cuſtoms, genius, and languages; notwithſtanding their having been ſo long united under one monarch. Whatever affinity there may be between the Chineſe and Japaneſe, one thing, however, is certain, that in the character they bear with other nations, they appear in a quite oppoſite light. Whilſt the Chineſe are looked upon as crafty, cunning, covetous, and knaviſh, the Japaneſe are admired for their ſtrict honeſty, fidelity, and generoſity: they are generally wiſe, acute, and ingenious, ſurpaſſing all Orientals, and even Europeans in docility. They enjoy themſelves as much in innocent pleaſures as any other nation, but can at any time forego them for better employment, and are content when their circumſtances do not eaſily admit of them. Neither are they covetous after much wealth, being ſatisfied with a competency, as the beſt preſervative againſt lying and cozening, againſt envy or detraction. In converſation, they obſerve a great decorum, and avoid all looſe, light, and vain ſpeeches, affecting a kind of laconic ſtyle, and an averſion to railing and defamation. In diet, they are abſtemious; in dreſs and furniture, clean and decent. Drunkenneſs and gluttony are ſcarce known amongſt them, any more than cheating and diſhoneſty: yet, with theſe virtues, which many of them poſſeſs in an eminent degree, they are frequently cruel and revengeful, and carry their reſentment to exceſs; and in great misfortunes, as injuries, diſgrace, affronts from their ſuperiors, or other ſuch mortifications, they moſt commonly make away with themſelves. Their women are more particularly guilty of this crime of ſuicide, eſpecially, whenever their chaſtity, conjugal fidelity, or even modeſty, are called in queſtion.

How peopled.

Character of the Japaneſe.

The ſituation of Japan is ſuch as to poſſeſs the fifth and ſixth climates, ſo that the longeſt day is between fourteen and fifteen hours; and their heat might be expected to exceed ours by many degrees, though we are told, that their winters are exceſſive cold, by the vaſt quantities of ſnow that uſually fall there, and the great rains and bleak winds to which thoſe iſlands, which lie very high, are conſtantly expoſed. The Dutch in general aſſure us, that the

Climate.

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Soil and produce. the land is fertile, well cultivated and peopled, and that, beſides corn, rice, and other grain, it produces a great variety of fruits, and breeds vaſt numbers of cattle of all ſorts. Some parts are incumbered with woods and foreſts, and interſected by long ridges of mountains of a conſiderable height; but ſome of theſe mountains are enriched *Mines, &c.* with mines of gold and ſilver in large quantities, and extraordinary fine, with copper exquiſitely fine, tin, lead, iron, beſides a great variety of other minerals and foſſils; whilſt others abound with ſeveral ſorts of marble, and other curious ſtone of a more precious nature. Some of thoſe mountains alſo may be juſtly intitled to a rank among the natural rarities of this country; one, in the great iſland of Niphon, is of ſuch prodigious height, as to be eaſily ſeen forty leagues off at ſea, though its diſtance from the ſhore is above eighteen. Some authors think it exceeds the famed Peak of Teneriffe; but it may be rather called a cluſter or group of mountains, among which no *Volcanoes.* leſs than eight have very dreadful volcanoes, burning with incredible fury, and cauſing great diſorder and devaſtations round about them, not unlike thoſe of Veſuvius. But, to make ſome amends, they afford great variety of medicinal waters of different degrees of heat; the moſt remarkable of them is that mentioned by Varenius, which is ſaid to be as hot as boiling oil, and to ſcorch and conſume every thing thrown into it.

Coloſſus at Meaco. Among the artificial rarities of this country, we ſhall only mention the famed coloſſus of the city of Meaco, which is all of gilt copper, and of ſuch a prodigious ſize, that, being ſeated in a chair eighty feet in breadth, and ſeventy in height, no leſs than fifteen men can ſtand conveniently on its head. Its thumb is fourteen inches in circumference, and the reſt proportionable to it. This is one of the principal idols or deities of this iſland. But the Japaneſe are ſo greatly addicted to this kind of idolatrous worſhip, that every place ſwarms with idols. They have them not only in their temples, but in their other public and private buildings, in their ſtreets, market-places, and even along the highways. The temple of Meaco in particular may be conſidered as a Japaneſe Pantheon, containing no leſs than three thouſand three hundred and thirty-three idols within its walls.

Government. The government of theſe iſlands, is, and has been for a long time monarchical, though formerly, it ſeems to have been ſplit into a great number of petty kingdoms, which were at length all ſwallowed up into one. The imperial dignity

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dignity had been enjoyed for a conſiderable time, till the year 1500, in a conſtant ſucceſſion, by princes under the title of dairos, a name, it is ſuppoſed, derived from Dairo, the head of that family. Soon after that ill-fated epoch, ſuch a dreadful civil war was raiſed, and laſted ſo many years, that the empire was quite ruined. During this horrid confuſion, in which all the petty kings and princes were committing the greateſt devaſtations againſt one another, a common ſoldier, by name Tayckoy, and a perſon of obſcure birth, but of an enterpriſing genius, found means to raiſe himſelf to the higheſt power. He began at firſt with fifty ſoldiers, equally intrepid and daring; but was ſeconded by ſuch an uncommon ſhare of fortune, that their numbers quickly increaſing to a great army, he carried on his conqueſts with incredible ſucceſs and celerity. In little more than three years time, he ſubdued all the contending parties, took their cities and caſtles, and raiſed himſelf to the imperial dignity. The dairo, not being in a condition to obſtruct, or put a ſtop to his progreſs, was forced to ſubmit to his terms; and might, perhaps, have been condemned to much harder, had not Tayckoy been apprehenſive, leſt his ſoldiers, who ſtill revered their ancient natural monarchs, ſhould have revolted in his favour. To prevent this, he granted him the ſupreme power in all religious matters, with great privileges, honours, and revenues annexed to it; whilſt himſelf remained inveſted with the whole civil and military power, and was acknowledged and proclaimed emperor of Japan. This great revolution happened in 1517, and Tayckoy reigned ſeveral years with great wiſdom and tranquility; during which, he made many wholſome laws and regulations in his new empire, which ſtill ſubſiſt, and are much admired to this day. At his death, he left the crown to his ſon Tayckoſamma, then a minor, but the treacherous prince, under whoſe guardianſhip he was left, deprived him of his life before he came of age. By this murder, the crown paſſed to the family of Jejaſamma, whoſe great-grandſon Tſinajos, was upon the throne, when our laſt accounts came from thence. Tayckoy, and his ſucceſſors, have contented themſelves with the title of cubo, which, under the dairos, was that of prime miniſter, whoſe office is now ſuppreſſed; ſo that the cubo, in all ſecular concerns, is quite as abſolute and deſpotic, and has as extenſive a power over the lives and fortunes of all his ſubjects, from the petty kings down to the loweſt perſons, as ever the dairos had.

Revolution.

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The dairo resides constantly at Meaco, and the cubo at Jeddo.

Japan, how, and when discovered.

Whether these islands were known to the ancients or not, is a question not worth inquiring into. Paul, the Venetian, gave some account of them, which he had from the Chinese, prior to their discovery by the Portuguese in 1548, when one of their ships, bound from Siam to China, was driven upon those coasts by stress of weather. It was not long before their nation got admittance into this empire; and, having recommended themselves to the emperor by their great skill in the liberal sciences, not only obtained a free commerce, but likewise a free exercise of their religion, and, in time, a liberty and encouragement to propagate it through his dominions; insomuch, that if their accounts may be credited, about one third of the inhabitants were converted, and the emperor himself an extraordinary favourer of, if not a zealous proselyte to it. All these great advantages were at length entirely lost, partly by the indiscreet zeal of the missionaries, partly by the jealousy of the unconverted nobles, and especially of the Japanese priests, who could not, without the greatest envy and regret, behold their old religion, with all its powerful attractives of profit, popular esteem, and respect, daily losing ground; but more particularly, by the policy or treachery of the Dutch, who found effectual means to undermine them. All the Christian converts were put to the most cruel deaths, and the Europeans, except the Dutch, were, under pain of death, forbid to come within the Japanese dominions. The Dutch have ever since ingrossed the trade of Japan, exclusive of all other Europeans, but are under such restrictions, that it is quite out of their power to form any designs upon the country.

Trade of the Dutch with the Japanese.

The commodities exported by the Dutch are chiefly rice, silks, cotton, the finest of porcelane, varnish, gold and silver, copper and steel, elephant's teeth, very rich furs, tea of all sorts, some kinds of such excellent flavour and taste, that they are sold at a prodigious rate, even above that of gold, weight for weight; a great variety of medicinal herbs, roots, and gums; all which, as well as the tea, are sold genuine, without the adulterations committed by the Chinese in theirs: ambergrise, pearls, coral, &c. in exchange for which, the Dutch bring them not only glasses of all sorts, woollen and linen cloths, &c. from Holland, but furnish them likewise with many other commodities

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commodities from Siam, China, and other parts of India. In the carrying on of this commerce, there is this farther encouragement, that no cuſtom is paid for goods, either imported or exported.

SECT. X.

Of India, and the Oriental Iſlands.

Importance of India.

INDIA has loſt nothing among the moderns of that eſteem which it was poſſeſſed of among the ancients. The curious do not heſitate to make a voyage of above three thouſand leagues, to viſit the wonders of that country; its riches make our merchants forget the trouble, the fatigue, and danger, of a long and painful navigation; the learned, throughout all Europe, carefully ſeek after its animals and plants, to ſtudy the ſingularities of nature, more various and fertile in theſe countries than in their own; its beauties adorn the palaces of princes, and add ſplendor to the diadems of ſovereigns.

Since the Portugueſe found the way to India by the Cape of Good Hope, between two and three hundred years ago, the voyages thither by the Engliſh, Dutch, French, Portugueſe, and Spaniards, have been almoſt infinite. Every one of theſe nations has made its particular diſcoveries there; and, at preſent, that country is almoſt as well known to us as any of the European. India, according to the lateſt obſervations, extends from the 83d deg. of longitude to the 130th; and from the equator to the 23d deg. of north latitude. From China to Perſia, which bound theſe countries on the eaſt and weſt, are reckoned about five hundred leagues; and there are almoſt as many from the extremity of the peninſula beyond the Ganges to Tartary, which bounds India on the north ſide.

Extent and boundaries.

Air and ſoil.

The air cannot be the ſame throughout this vaſt extent of country, but, in general, it is good and healthy. The rains, which fall continually from the beginning of June till the end of Auguſt, ſerve to refreſh it, eſpecially in the two peninſulas, which are almoſt entirely within the torrid zone. They render the earth fruitful, which furniſhes in abundance all the neceſſaries of life, except towards the north, where it does not anſwer equally the labour of thoſe who cultivate it. From hence ariſes that almoſt infinite number of inhabitants in India, which compoſe, even at this day, fifty-two kingdoms and different principalities,

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whereof, it is true, the greateſt part depend on the principal ſovereigns of the country.

Grand diviſion. This country is divided into two principal parts; the firſt called India within the Ganges, Indoſtan, or the empire of the Great Mogul; and the ſecond, India beyond the Ganges, or its further peninſula, governed by different princes.

Boundaries, ſituation, extent, and diviſions of the Mogul empire. The empire of the Mogul is bounded by Uſbeck Tartary and Tibet on the north; by another part of Tibet, Acham, Ava, and the bay of Bengal, on the eaſt; by the Indian Ocean, on the ſouth; and by the ſame ocean and Perſia, on the weſt. It is ſituate between 66 and 92° of eaſt longitude, and between 7 and 40° of north latitude, and extends two thouſand miles in length, and fifteen hundred in breadth. The ſouth-eaſt coaſt of India, ſituate on the bay of Bengal, uſually called the coaſt of Coromandel, contains the provinces of Madura, Tanjour, eaſt ſide of Biſnagar or Carnate, Golconda, and Orixa, the ſouth-weſt coaſt or coaſt of Malabar, thoſe of the weſt ſide of Biſnagar or Carnate, Decan or Viſiapour, and Cambaya or Guzarat. The north-eaſt diviſion comprehends the provinces of Bengal, on the mouths of the Ganges, and thoſe of the mountains of Naugracut, diſtinguiſhed into Bengal Proper, and Naugracut, Jeſuat, Patna, Necbal, Gor, and Rotas. The north-weſt diviſion on the frontiers of Perſia and the river Indus, contains the provinces of Soret, Teſſelmere, Tata, Buckor, Multan, Haican, and Cabul. And the middle diviſion, thoſe of Candiſh, Berar, Chitor, Ratipor, Narvar, Gualeor, Ayra, Delhi, Lahor, Hendows, Caſſimere, Jengapour, and Aſme.

The chain of mountains which run through this peninſula, from north to ſouth, are the cauſe of an extraordinary phenomenon in natural hiſtory. The countries which are ſeparated by theſe mountains, though under the ſame latitude, have their ſeaſons and climate entirely different from each other; and while it is winter on one ſide of the hills, it is ſummer on the other. On the coaſt of Malabar, a ſouth-weſt wind begins to blow from the ſea at the end of June, with continued rain, and rages againſt the coaſt for four months, during which time the weather is calm and ſerene on the coaſt of Coromandel; and towards the end of October, the rainy ſeaſon, or change of the monſoon, begins on the Coromandel coaſt; at which time, the tempeſtuous winds beating continually againſt a coaſt, in which there are no good ports, make it ſo dan-

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dangerous for the shipping to remain there for the three ensuing months, that it is scarce ever attempted. This is the cause of the periodical return of our ships to Bombay, where there is a secure harbour and convenient docks.

Antiquity of India, and by whom first inhabited.

This great extent of country has been inhabited, from the earliest antiquity, by a people who have now little or no resemblance, either in their figures or manners, with any of the nations which are contiguous to them. Its first inhabitants were probably from Persia, that kingdom being an inlet to it, and in the way of Mesopotamia, where it seems to be agreed the descendants of Noah first settled after the flood: but, whoever were the first inhabitants, the Ethiopians next possessed the southern division of the peninsula, as appears from their posterity remaining there, not a white man, or any other complexion but blacks, possessing any part of that country; and that they came from Ethiopia is evident, not only from their complexion, but from their long hair and regular features, very different from the other African blacks. A farther evidence of their being the descendants of the Ethiopians, is, that the queen of Sheba, or Ethiopia, made presents to Solomon of the finest spices, which only grow in India, and were brought from the colonies of the Ethiopians, and planted here. It may be said, perhaps, that the people of this country were originally black; but this is far from being probable, because none of the natives of the other parts of India are black, though they lie much nearer the equator. The Arabs were the next that possessed the maritime parts of this country; for almost all the coast were subject to Arabian or Mohammedan princes, when the Portuguese arrived here in 1500; and these had dispossessed the Ethiopians, and driven them up into the midland country, where they still remain. India was afterwards, about the year 1400, invaded by the Mogul Tartars under Tamerlane, who fixed his third son, Miracha, in the north of India and Persia; but the southern peninsula of India was not reduced under the obedience of the Mogul princes, until the reign of Aurengzebe. This prince deposed and confined his father Shah Gehan, who died in 1666; and having murdered his three brothers, and some of their children to acquire the throne, he maintained himself in it near fifty years; but with so strict an attention to the government of his empire, and with so laudable an administration, that the crimes he was guilty of to pave the way to his accession, if they appeared such in the eyes of his countrymen, were quite obliterated, and

Invaded and conquered.

Aurengzebe and his descendants.

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he ſeemed entitled to be ranked with the ableſt princes who had reigned in any age or country. He conquered more than half the provinces of Indoſtan in perſon, and his viceroys conquered or ſubjected almoſt all the reſt, the ſea-coaſts of Malabar excepted. The revenues of the empire amounted, in his time, to thirty-eight millions of pounds ſterling. He was near a hundred when he died in 1707. He never eat any fleſh-meat, nor taſted ſtrong drink. But all his abilities did not give him the power of ſecuring his crown to one of his ſons in preference to the reſt; and it appears by his will, that he foreſaw the conteſts which enſued amongſt them after his death. His ſons, Azem Shah, and Mahomed Mauzm, fought at the head of armies not equalled ſince the time of Tamerlane. That of Mahomed Mauzm conſiſted of more than three hundred thouſand fighting men, of which one hundred and fifty thouſand were cavalry. Azem, who ſeems by his father's will to have been the favourite, was defeated and killed, and Mauzm was proclaimed emperor, under the title of Badahr Shah, after which he attacked his brother Kaunbukſh, who was taken priſoner and died of his wounds. Badahr Shah died after reigning about ſix years, and his four ſons diſputed in like manner the throne. By that dependence to the great men of the kingdom, to which their conteſt for the crown had reduced the deſcendents of Aurengzebe, the emperor's elected, though deſpotic with the multitude, aſcended the throne in bonds, and were, in reality, nothing more than the ſlaves of their miniſters. Abdallah Khan, and Hoſſam Aly Khan, two brothers, were powerful enough to make four, and depoſe five emperors of Indoſtan. But ſtill the blood of Tamerlane continued to be held in too great veneration throughout the empire, to permit any others but his deſcendants to entertain the thoughts of aſcending the throne with impunity. The two brothers, and thoſe who ſtood neareſt to the throne, in virtue of their offices and power, were therefore contented to rule the empire as they pleaſed, by ſhewing to the people a pompous ſovereign, who, in reality, was to command nothing but the women in his ſeraglio. With this view, they at laſt fixed their choice on Mohamed Shah, ſon of one of the princes who periſhed in diſputing the ſucceſſion of their father Behadr Shah. The beginning of his reign was not without a ſtroke of authority in the mode of eaſtern politics. The courtiers, to pleaſe him, aſſaſſinated Hoſſam Aly Khan, one of the two brothers, whoſe hands had been imbrued

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imbrued in ſo much of the blood of his family. The other brother immediately appeared in arms, but was ſoon taken priſoner, and died of the wounds he had received in a battle, which he fought for another emperor of his own nomination. The removal of two ſuch dangerous enemies to the throne, placed Mahomed Shah in poſſeſſion of it with a ſecurity unknown to his predeceſſors, ſince the reign of Aurengzebe; but this ſecurity ſerved only to render him unworthy of it. Indolent, ſenſual, and irreſolute, he voluntary gave to favourites as great a degree of power, as that which the miniſters of the throne had lately poſſeſſed, in defiance of the will of their ſovereign. The favourites quarrelled with Nizam al Muluk, the viceroy of the ſouthern provinces, who had under his juriſdiction very near a fourth part of the empire, and who, without rebellion, had rendered himſelf almoſt independent of the emperor. He cenſured openly the puſillanimous adminiſtration and diſſolute manners of the court, ſo degenerate from that of Aurengzebe, under whoſe eye he had been bred. At laſt, pretending there could be no remedy to ſuch deſperate evils, but a total revolution of the empire, he adviſed Thamas Kouli Khan, who had uſurped the throne of Perſia, to come and take poſſeſſion of that of Indoſtan; and Thamas Kouli Khan followed his advice. An army famiſhed by its own numbers, commanded by chiefs, unanimous in nothing but their unwillingneſs to fight, and thoſe by an emperor who could not command his fears, ſubmitted to enemies whom they out-numbered five to one; but theſe enemies had been inured to conflicts under the moſt deſperate ſoldier of the age, and were rendered invincible by the expectation of plundering the capital of the richeſt empire in the world. A ſkirmiſh decided the fate of the empire. Mahomed Shah laid his regalia at the feet of Thamas Kouli Khan, who took poſſeſſion of Delhi, plundered it, and maſſacred one hundred thouſand of its inhabitants. The conqueror reſerved to himſelf all the countries lying to the weſtward of the rivers Indus and Attoc, reſtored all the reſt to Mahomed Shah, and reinſtated him in the throne with formalities; after which he returned to Perſia, carrying with him out of Indoſtan a treaſure, which in effects, ſilver, gold, and jewels, was valued at upwards of ſeventy millions of pounds ſterling. He entered India from Candahar in the beginning of the year 1738, and returned to Candahar at the end of the year 1739. This dreadful incurſion is

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reckoned to have coſt Indoſtan, beſides its treaſures, the loſs of two hundred thouſand lives.

The cruelties exerciſed in India by Thamas Kouli Khan, were ſuch, that a derviſe had the courage to preſent a writing to him, conceived in theſe terms: "If thou art a God, act as a God; if thou art a prophet, conduct us in the way of ſalvation; if thou art a king, render the people happy, and do not deſtroy them." To which he replied, "I am no God, to act as a God; nor a prophet, to ſhew the way of ſalvation; nor a king to render the people happy: but I am He whom God ſends to the nations which he is determined to viſit with his wrath."

The prince whom Kouli Khan had reinſtated, is ſaid to have been murdered by the vizir Gauze Odin Khan, who thereupon exalted Allum Geer to the throne of Indoſtan; but ſome time after, being diſſatisfied with his own election in the perſon of this prince, he impriſoned him, kept him in cloſe confinement for ſeveral years, drove his children from Delhi; and at length, to complete the ſyſtem, murdered him alſo, and proclaimed another prince at that capital. This is the preſent ſtate of the Mogul family, and it is Allum Geer's ſon, by the title of Shah Zahah, who of late has occaſioned great diſturbances in the government of Bengal, by making a party there. When he was appriſed of his father's aſſaſſination, he did not long delay to aſſert his title to the inheritance of his anceſtors. He cauſed himſelf to be acknowleged king immediately by his dependents, and was recognized as ſuch by his followers; and he demanded homage and obeiſance from the nabob of Bengal.

Government of Indoſtan.

It is generally ſuppoſed, that the peninſula within the Ganges is under the immediate government of the Mogul himſelf, and that the royal mandates from Delhi are, according to the received notion of ſo arbitrary a dominion, obeyed in the moſt remote parts of the coaſt. This is ſo far from the truth, that a great part of that vaſt peninſula never acknowleged any ſubjection to the throne of Delhi, till the reign of Aurengzebe, as above mentioned; and the revenues from thoſe Indian kings and Mooriſh governors, who were conquered or employed by him, have, ſince his death, been intercepted by the viceroys, whom his weaker ſucceſſors have appointed for the government of the peninſula: ſo that at this time, neither can the tribute from the ſeveral potentates reach the court of Delhi, nor the vigour of the government extend from the capital to thoſe remote

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more countries. And ever ſince Indoſtan was ruined by Thamas Kouli Khan, the weakneſs of the Mogul, and the policy and confirmed independency of the viceroys, have, in a manner, confined the influence of the government to its inland department. Let it therefore be underſtood, that the ſovereign poſſeſſes a third only, and that the leaſt valuable part, of his own vaſt empire. Bengal, the ſmalleſt, but moſt fertile province, is governed by a viceroy. The other diviſion, called the Decan, extending from Balaſore Jagonaut, or thereabouts, to Cape Comorin, is alſo delegated by the Mogul to another viceroy, of exceeding great power, having within his juriſdiction ſeven large territories, to which he has the undiſputed right of nominating ſeven nabobs, or governors of provinces. In all parts of India, there are ſtill large diſtricts, which have preſerved, with the Gentoo religion, the old form of government under Indian kings, called rajas; ſuch are Maiſſore, whoſe capital is Seringapatam; and Tanjore, the capital of the ſame name. There are alſo, among the woods and mountainous parts of the country ſeveral petty princes, diſtinguiſhed by the name of polygars. Theſe are all tributary to the nabobs, and thoſe to the viceroy, whoſe capital is Aurengabad. The Carnatic is that part of the Decan which comprehends the principal ſettlements of the Europeans, Madras, Pondicherry, and alſo Arcot.

Military force, and manner of the Mogul's going to war.

Nothing appears a greater difficulty to the military men in this part of the world, than the poſſibility of ſubſiſting ſuch vaſt multitudes as the Aſiatic armies frequently conſiſt of, eſpecially ſo large a proportion of horſe; but if it be a matter of aſtoniſhment, that ſuch numbers of fighting-men are frequently brought into the field, how will it appear when it is added to the account, that every horſeman has two ſervants, one to take care of his horſe, the other to procure him forage, and that all theſe are accompanied by their wives and children; that there always follows the camp a moveable town of ſhops, where every thing is to be ſold as in their cities; beſides ſome hundreds of elephants for ſtate only, and a train of women, with their numberleſs retinue, belonging to the prince and the great officers: for whenever the ſovereign moves, he is more taken up with a vain oſtentation of pomp and magnificence than with the object of the war; and it is his pleaſure that his ſubjects ſhould abandon the capital, in order to augment his numbers. In imitation of their ſovereign, and from the ſame motives of pride and vanity, the leſſer princes and viceroys affect the ſame magnificence

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in the ſplendor of their camps, and the number of their followers. To provide for all theſe, the whole country is put in motion, and the ſtricteſt orders are given for all proviſions to be brought into the camp. By theſe means, all the cities, far and near, are exhauſted, but the camp, for the moſt part, is plentifully ſupplied. However, it muſt be ſuppoſed, that theſe numerous armies ſeldom keep the field any time, without great loſs by famine; for a very conſiderable diminution is ſcarcely felt among ſuch numbers, and very little regarded from any notions of humanity; a famine is, therefore, neither conſidered as any thing extraordinary, nor will the remembrance of it ever prevent the aſſembling of another multitude, who muſt alſo be liable to the ſame chances of ſubſiſting or ſtarving, as accident ſhall determine. In like manner, allowance muſt be made for the great loſs and damage they ſuſtain in men, beaſts, and all the implements of war, as often as they move in difficult roads and defiles, particularly in their method of paſſing over great rivers; for their rivers, when they are not fordable, in the rainy ſeaſon become torrents, being ſwelled to ſuch a degree, that they are not to be paſſed but ſlantwiſe, the landing-place being frequently above a mile below the place of embarkation.

Want of courage in the Indians, to what owing.

It is owing entirely to an ignorance of the manners of the Aſiatics, that many people imagine they can never be made ſoldiers. It may, perhaps, be ſhewn, that they never will, whilſt the ſame wretched government and abhorrence of innovation ſubſiſts; but thoſe are greatly miſtaken, who attribute their dread of fire-arms, and particularly of artillery, to a daſtardly diſpoſition and an invincible timidity. The true cauſe lies in the inexperience of their leading men, who never underſtood the advantages of diſcipline, and who have kept their infantry upon too low a footing. Their cavalry, though not backward to engage with ſabres, are extremely unwilling to bring their horſes within the reach of great guns; ſo that they do not decline an engagement ſo much through fear for their lives, as for their fortunes, which are all laid out in the horſe they ride on. Such of the natives as have been diſciplined and encouraged by Europeans, and formed into a regular infantry under officers of their own, and generally known by the name of Sepoys, have familiarized themſelves to fire-arms, and behaved well behind walls; and when we give them ſerjeants to lead them on, they make no contemptible figure in the field. In war with

Obſtacles to their ſucceſs in war.

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the Aſiatics alone, we have a much greater advantage in their being ſo very tenacious of their old manners than in their want of bravery. When we march round them with our light field-pieces, and make it neceſſary to move thoſe enormous weights, their bullocks, which are at beſt very untractable, if a ſhot comes among them they are quite ungovernable; and, at the ſame time, ſo ill-harneſſed, that it cauſes no ſmall delay to free the reſt from one that ſhall happen to be unruly or ſlain. Beſides, not only the prince himſelf, but every raja, who has the command of all the forces he can bring into the field, be they more or leſs, always appears among them mounted on an elephant, and is at once the general and enſign, or ſtandard of that corps, who keep their eyes conſtantly on him, and if they loſe ſight of him for a moment, conclude that all is loſt. Thus we find Aurengzebe gained two battles by the treachery of thoſe who deſired his two victorious brothers to get down from their elephants, mount their horſes, and purſue the vanquiſhed: their troops miſſing them, immediately diſperſed. The ſame practice continued to this day, affords our engineers a fair opportunity of deciding the fate of a whole detachment, by one well-directed diſcharge of a ſix-pounder; and thoſe enormous beaſts now ſeem to be brought into the field for no other end but to be a mark for our artillery. It is ſaid, they begin to ſee the danger of this practice, but ſurely that might have been found long ſince; for before the uſe of artillery, the general, thus diſtinguiſhed, was, in like manner, expoſed to the arrows of a whole army, and yet we always find them in the ſame perilous ſtation. Porus is ſaid to have been pierced with nine arrows, and to have ſunk from his elephant with innumerable wounds. It ſhould ſeem probable, that not merely their regard for ancient manners, but the expediency of keeping their troops together by this ſignal, will induce them to continue the ſame method; the neceſſity of which will appear from the conduct and ſucceſs of Aurengzebe, who, when he found his army giving way on every ſide, ordered chains to be faſtened about the legs of his elephant, to convince them that he would not give the example of flight; and that thoſe to whom his life was dear or intereſting, could preſerve it by no other means but firmly maintaining their ground. To ſhew, however, that they themſelves are ſenſible of the danger of being thus expoſed, they will ſometimes avail themſelves of the only deviſe that can afford them any ſecurity; for it has been obſerved,

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obſerved, that ſeveral elephants capariſoned alike, with riders in the ſame rich and ſplendid habits, have appeared in different parts of the field on the ſame day. Another great obſtacle to their ſucceſs in war, is their ſuperſtition, and particularly their ſtrict obſervance of lucky and unlucky days, which often prevents them from taking the moſt obvious advantages of an enemy. Being fond of all kinds of beaſts of prey, they keep great numbers of them, and often viſit them before they give battle. If they find them heavy and dull, they think it a bad omen, and a reaſon ſufficient to poſtpone their intended deſign of an action; and, on the other hand, the accidental fury of the animal is regarded as a happy omen of ſucceſs. They have alſo a cuſtom of matching two wild beaſts, moſt commonly elephants; and having given their own name to the one, and that of the enemy to the other, they bring them together to fight in preſence of their army; but, in this cuſtom they are not altogether to be condemned for ſuperſtitious folly, ſince they have the policy to make it a very unequal match, and give their own name to the ſtronger. We ſhall add to theſe obſervations, that notwithſtanding they have ſo ſeverely ſuffered by being ſurpriſed in the night by the Europeans, they can never be brought to eſtabliſh either order or vigilance in their camp. At the cloſe of the evening, every man eats an inconceivable quantity of rice, and many take after it ſome kind of ſoporific drugs; ſo that about midnight, the whole army is in a dead ſleep. The conſequence of theſe habits is obvious; and yet it would appear a ſtrange propoſition to an Eaſtern monarch, to endeavour to perſuade him, that the ſecurity of his throne depended upon the regulation of the meals of a common ſoldier; much leſs would he be prevailed on to reſtrain him in the uſe of that opium, which is to warm his blood for action, and animate his ſoul with heroiſm. It muſt fill the mind of an European ſoldier at once with compaſſion and contempt, to ſee a heap of theſe poor creatures, ſolely animated by a momentary intoxication, crowded into a breach, and both in their garb and impotent fury, reſembling a mob of frantic women.

There is certainly an appearance of effeminacy in the eaſtern dreſs, which has at all times greatly contributed to leſſen their military character with the European nations, who, from their own habits and prejudices, will naturally receive a ſtrange impreſſion upon ſeeing a body of horſe in ſilk or cotton robes; and yet there is no character they are ſo fond of as that of a warrior; and as they have no

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other notion of government, they have been, from time immemorial, continually at war with one another.

Character, religion, manners, cuſtoms, &c of the original inhabitants of Indoſtan.

The original inhabitants of Indoſtan have loſt very little of their original character by the eſtabliſhment of ſtrangers amongſt them. Beſides the particular denominations which they receive from the caſts and countries in which they are born, there is one more general, which is applied indiſcriminately to diſtinguiſh the original natives from all who have intruded themſelves amongſt them, Hindoo, from whence Indian.

The Indians have loſt all memory of the ages in which they began to believe in Viſtnou, Eſwara, Brama, and a hundred thouſand divinities ſubordinate to theſe. Theſe divinities are worſhipped in temples, called pagodas, in every part of Indoſtan, the whole extent of which is holy land to its inhabitants; that is, there is no part in which ſome divinity has not appeared and done ſomething to merit a temple and prieſts to take care of it. Some of theſe temples are of immemorial antiquity; they are, at the ſame time, monuments of ſuch ſtupendous labour, that they are ſuppoſed to have been built by the gods to whom they are conſecrated. The hiſtories of theſe gods is a heap of the greateſt abſurdities. It is Eſwara twiſting off the neck of Brama; it is the ſun, who gets his teeth knocked out, and the moon, who has her face beaten black and blue at a feaſt, at which the gods quarrel and fight with the ſpirit of a mob. They ſay, that the ſun and moon carry in their faces to this day the marks of this broil. Here and there a moral, or metaphyſical allegory, and ſometimes a trace of the hiſtory of a firſt legiſlator, is diſcernible in theſe ſtories; but in general they are ſo very extravagant and incoherent, that we cannot help being ſurpriſed how a people, ſo reaſonable in other reſpects, ſhould have adopted ſuch a code of nonſenſe as a creed of religion, did we not find the ſame credulity in the hiſtories of nations much more enlightened.

The Bramins, who are the tribe of the prieſthood, deſcended from thoſe Brachmans who are mentioned to us with ſo much reverence by antiquity; and although much inferior, either as philoſophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their anceſtors, as prieſts their religious doctrines are ſtill implicitly followed by the whole nation, and as preceptors they are the ſource of all the knowlege which exiſts in Indoſtan.

Writings and religion of Zoroaſter.

The religion and hiſtory of the Gaures, or ancient Perſians, are in a great meaſure the ſame with thoſe of the Brachmans,

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Brachmans, or primitive inhabitants of India. They are derived from Zoroaster, and, besides being a very interesting object of themselves, they merit the attention of the learned, by the connection those people have had with the Hebrews, Greeks, and perhaps, even the Chinese. Great lights may be had from the works of Zoroaster, by men of true genius, who are well skilled in the ancient languages, by comparing them with other Oriental manuscripts; and very important discoveries may be made concerning the origin of mankind, and the histories of those ages which were near the general deluge. Such of the writings of Zoroaster as still remain, speak of the creation of the universe, of the terrestrial paradise, of the dispersion of mankind, and the cause of the respect paid by the Perses, or Parses, to fire, which they call Athro Eboremesdao, *Son of God.* They contain also an account of the origin of evil, moral and natural; eulogiums on all the angels that were appointed to the government of the universe; many historical facts, which are more fully related in other works, written in modern Persic; they also frequently mention the kings and heroes of the first dynasty, and exhibit their chronologies; lastly, they contain predictions with respect to the latter times; several particulars relating to the end of the world, and the resurrection; some excellent moral precepts, and a very extensive ceremonial code. God is called by Zoroaster, Menioscpeneste, which signifies a Being absorbed in excellence. Such of the Persians and Indians, who profess themselves observers of his law and worship, are thoroughly persuaded of his divine mission, and suppose that he received the book of his law from God himself, after having passed ten years at the foot of his throne.

But to return to the Bramins: it may be said as to the particulars of their science and religion, that some of them are capable of calculating an eclipse, which seems to be the utmost stretch of their mathematical knowlege. They have a good idea of logic, but it does not appear that they have any treatises on rhetoric: their ideas of music, if we may judge from the practice, are barbarous; and in medicine they derive no assistance from the knowlege of anatomy, dissections being repugnant to their religion. They shed no blood, and eat no flesh, because they believe in the transmigration of souls; they encourage wives to burn themselves with their deceased husbands, and seem to make the perfection of religion to consist in a punctual observance of numerous ceremonies performed in the worship

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worſhip of their gods, and in a ſtrict attention to keep their bodies free from pollution. Hence purifications and ablutions, as dictated by their ſcriptures, are ſcrupulouſly obſerved by them, and take up no ſmall portion of their time. A Bramin cannot eat any thing which has been prepared, or even touched by any other hand than that of a Bramin, and from the ſame principle cannot be married to a perſon of any other tribe in the kingdom, becauſe his own tribe is the higheſt, even above that of the kings. They ſay, that they were formerly the kings of the whole country, and retain to this day the privilege of commuting capital puniſhment, when merited, by the loſs of their eyes. To kill a Bramin is one of the five ſins, for which there is ſcarce any expiation.

The pre-eminence of the Bramins admitted, it ſeems as if the Indians had determined to compenſate the odium of ſuch ſuperiority, by forming themſelves into a number of diſtinct tribes or gradations of people; who reſpectively ſubmit to the different degrees of eſtimation, in which they have at laſt agreed to abide, as implicitly as all agree to acknowlege the ſuperiority of the Bramins. The many temporal advantages which the Bramins derive from their ſpiritual authority, and the impoſſibility of being admitted into their tribe, have, perhaps, given riſe to that number of Joquees and Facquires, who torture themſelves with ſuch various and aſtoniſhing penances, only to gain the ſame veneration which a Bramin derives from his birth.

The tribes into which the Indians are divided are reckoned by travellers to be eighty-four: perhaps, when India is better known, we ſhall find them to be many more; for there is a ſingular diſpoſition in the Indian, from very trifling circumſtances, to form a ſect apart from the reſt of his neighbours. But the order of pre-eminence of all the tribes in a particular city or province is, for the moſt part, indiſputably decided. The Indian of an inferior tribe thinks himſelf honoured by being ſuffered to adopt the cuſtoms of a ſuperior tribe; which, on its ſide, never fails to aſſert its prerogatives: the inferior receives the victuals prepared by a ſuperior with reſpect, but the ſuperior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior. Marriage is circumſcribed by the ſame bounds as the reſt of their intercourſe; and hence, beſides the national phyſiognomy, the members of each tribe preſerve an air of ſtill greater reſemblance to one another. Some tribes are remarkable

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for their beauty, others for their uglineſs. All theſe tribes acknowlege the Bramins for their prieſts, and with them admit tranſmigration. It is on account of this opinion that ſome afflict themſelves at the death of a fly, though occaſioned by their inadvertence. But the far greater number of tribes are not ſo ſcrupulous, and eat, though very ſparingly, both of fiſh and fleſh; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. Their diet is chiefly rice, and vegetables dreſſed with ginger, turmeric, and other hotter ſpices, which grow almoſt ſpontaneouſly in their gardens. They eſteem milk the pureſt of foods, becauſe they think it partakes of ſome of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and becauſe they eſteem the cow itſelf almoſt a divinity.

An abhorrence to the ſhedding of blood, derived from his religion, and ſeconded by the great temperance of a life which is ſpent in a very ſparing uſe of animal food, and a total abſtinence from intoxicating liquors; the influence of the moſt regular of climates, in which the great heat of the ſun and the great fertility of the ſoil leſſen moſt of the wants to which the human ſpecies is ſubject in auſterer regions, and ſupply the reſt without the exertion of much labour; theſe cauſes and their various conſequences, have all contributed to render the Indian the moſt enervated inhabitant of the globe. He ſhudders at the ſight of blood, and is of a puſillanimity only to be excuſed and accounted for by the great delicacy of his conſtitution. His manners are gentle, his happineſs conſiſts in the ſolaces of domeſtic life; to which, ſufficiently inclined by the climate, he is obliged by his religion, which eſteems matrimony a duty indiſpenſable in every man who does not quit the world to unite himſelf to God: ſuch is their phraſe. Though permitted by his religion, according to the example of his gods, to have ſeveral, he is ſeldom the huſband of more than one wife; and this wife is of a decency of demeanor, of a ſolicitude in her family, and of a fidelity to her vows, which might do honour to human nature in the moſt civilized countries. His amuſements conſiſt in going to his pagoda, and aſſiſting at religious ſhews, in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies preſcribed him on all occaſions by the Bramin; for, ſubject to a thouſand lapſes from the ideas he has adopted of impurity, the Indian is always offending his gods, who are not to be appeaſed till his prieſt is ſatisfied. But, in a country of ſuch great extent, divided into ſo many diſtinct ſovereignties, it cannot be expected that

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that there ſhould be no exceptions to one general aſſertion of the character of the inhabitants. There is every where in the mountains a wild inhabitant, whoſe bow an European can ſcarcely draw. There are in the woods people who ſubſiſt by their incurſions into the neighbouring plains, and who, without the ferocity of the American, poſſeſs all his treachery.

Arts and manufactures of the Indians.

The arts which furniſh the conveniencies of life have been carried by the Indians to a pitch far beyond what is neceſſary to ſupply the wants of a climate which knows ſo few. At the ſame time no ideas of taſte or fine deſign have exiſted amongſt them; and we ſeek in vain for elegance in the magnificence of the richeſt empire of the globe. Their knowlege of mechanical powers is ſo very confined, that we are left to admire, without being able to account for, the manner in which they have erected their capital pagodas. It does not appear that they had ever made a bridge of arches over any of their rivers, before the Mohammedans came amongſt them. It is to the ſuppleneſs with which the whole frame of an Indian is endowed, and which is ſtill more remarkable in the formation of his hand, that we are indebted for the exquiſite perfection of their manufactures. The ſame inſtruments which an Indian employs to make a piece of fine muſlin, would, under the rigid fingers of an European, ſcarcely produce a piece of canvaſs. Thus, not content with the preſents which nature has ſhowered on their climate, the Indians have made improvements when they felt no neceſſities. They have cultivated the various and valuable productions of their ſoil, not to the meaſure of their own, but to that of the wants of all other nations; they have carried their manufactures to a perfection which ſurpaſſes the moſt exquiſite productions of Europe, and have encouraged with avidity the annual tributes of gold and ſilver which the reſt of the world conteſt for the privilege of ſending to them. They have from time immemorial been as addicted to commerce, as they are averſe to war. They have therefore always been immenſely rich, and have always remained incapable of defending their wealth.

State of the Mohammedans of Indoſtan, compared with that of the original natives.

The Mohammedan princes of India naturally gave a preference to the ſervice of men of their own religion, who, from whatever country they came, were of a more vigorous conſtitution than the ſtouteſt of the ſubjected nation. This preference has continually encouraged adventurers from Tartary, Perſia, and Arabia, to ſeek their fortunes

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fortunes under a government, from which they were sure of receiving greater encouragement than they could expect at home. However, though the present Mohammedans in India may be computed at near ten millions, they are still out-numbered by the Indians ten to one; and this inferiority of number has obliged the Mohammedans to leave many rajas, or Indian princes, in possession of their respective sovereignties, which they are permitted to govern without molestation, on condition that they pay the stipulated tribute, and do not infringe any of the articles of the treaties by which they or their ancestors have acknowleged the sovereignty of the great Mogul. Besides the Indians who reside in the territories of the rajahs, there are every where great numbers in those parts of the country which are immediately subject to the great Mogul without the interposition of an Indian prince to govern them. They are the only cultivators of the land, and the only manufacturers of the immense quantities of cloths which are made in the empire. It is rare to see in the villages or fields a Mohammedan employed in any thing except levying contributions or acting in some other respects as an officer of the great Mogul.

In all the countries absolutely subjected, the great Mogul styles himself proprietor of all the lands, and parcels them out at will as revenues for life to his feudatories; but still these grants take not away from the cultivator the right of sale and bequest. The policy of all the Indian governments of Indostan, as well as that of the great Mogul, seems to consist more in a perpetual attention to prevent any one family from obtaining great possessions, than in the intention of making slaves of the body of the people; for such a slavery would soon leave the monarch little grandeur to boast of, and few subjects to command.

It has been observed, that all the Mohammedans established in India acquire, in the third generation, the indolence and pusillanimity of the original inhabitants, and, at the same time, a cruelty of character to which the Indians are happily strangers. Hence we are almost induced to give assent to the opinion, that the prohibition of shedding blood of any kind, inculcated by the Indian religion, was a political institution, wisely calculated to change into gentler manners the sanguinary disposition, which is said to have characterized all the inhabitants of Indostan before the religion of Brama was introduced amongst them.

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The British eſtabliſhments in the kingdom of Indoſtan are divided into three governments, independent of each other. Bombay commands the factories on the weſtern ſide of the peninſula, commonly called the Malabar Coaſt, together with thoſe in Perſia: the eſtabliſhments and poſſeſſions on the eaſtern or Coromandel coaſt are under the government of Madras; and thoſe in Bengal depend on Calcutta. From the year 1745, to the concluſion of the peace of 1763, the Engliſh have been continually engaged in war, in one or other of theſe diviſions; and the preſervation of their commerce in the Eaſt Indies abſolutely depended on the conduct and ſucceſs of the wars of Coromandel and Bengal. The French were beaten by them out of all their ſettlements; the treacherous deſigns of the Dutch were prevented; great armies of Indians were totally defeated: in ſhort, there was no part of the world in which the Britiſh arms had, at that period, acquired more honour. It is not our buſineſs to diſcuſs the merits of the revolution of Bengal that was brought about towards the cloſe of the war in thoſe parts, nor of the conteſts that have ſince ariſen concerning the miſbehaviour of the ſucceeding nabobs: theſe particulars are variouſly agitated; but the peaceful condition of the province, by the reinſtating of Jaffier Aly Cawn, in whoſe favour the revolution was firſt brought about, and the ſending over lord Clive, ſeem to make here any obſervations on thoſe events unneceſſary, and likewiſe on what ſince has happened. We ſhall therefore proceed to the other part of India, which is called the Farther India, or the peninſula beyond the Ganges. *Britiſh eſtabliſhments in Indoſtan.*

We ſhould in vain ſeek for any lights, with reſpect to this country, in the writings of the ancients. They had no idea of it in the time of Alexander, and only knew it by the report of thoſe whom trade or curioſity had incited to undertake ſo long and dangerous a voyage. All of them, aſtoniſhed at the greatneſs and rapidity of the Ganges, which has not its equal in Aſia, imagined it was the Piſon, one of the four rivers of the terreſtrial paradiſe. Joſephus is the firſt whom we know to have mentioned this; and he has been followed by many fathers of the church, commentators on Scripture, and modern divines. It is difficult to determine whether foreigners or Indians have given riſe to this notion. All we know is that the latter entertain great reverence for the waters of the Ganges. From a perſuaſion that they deface all the *India beyond the Ganges, &c. deſcribed.* *Ganges.*

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ſpots of ſin, they go in crouds from the remoteſt parts of the country to waſh in them. The reaſon of this is, becauſe they imagine this river does not take its ſource from the boſom of the earth, but that it deſcends from heaven into the paradiſe of Devendre, and from thence into Indoſtan. Nothing is more childiſh than the fables related by the Bramins on this ſubject; yet the confidence of the people is what gives them all their authority. The Mogul and the prince of Golconda drink no other water but that of the Ganges; foreigners, on the contrary, pretend that it is very unhealthy, and that it cannot be drank, unleſs firſt boiled. There are a great number of ſuperb pagodas on the banks of this river, ſome of which are immenſely rich. At certain feſtivals, which laſt ſeveral days, there has ſometimes been a concourſe of one hundred thouſand people, who come to bathe. But the great virtue of this river, and the only one which renders it valuable is, that it waſhes down gold in its ſands, and throws it on its banks; that it is placed in the firſt rank of thoſe rivers which produce precious ſtones; that the gulf of Bengal, into which it diſcharges itſelf, abounds in pearls and valuable ſtones; and that the Ganges is looked upon as the origin of them.

Extent and diviſions of the peninſula beyond the Ganges.

The peninſula beyond the Ganges ſtretches its whole length into the ſea, and modern geographers give it five hundred and thirty leagues from north to ſouth, and three hundred and ſixty from eaſt to weſt, its greateſt breadth. It is divided into three parts: the north, in which are the kingdoms of Acham, or Azem, Ava, Pegu, Laos, and ſome others little known; the ſouth, which contains thoſe of Siam and Malaya; the eaſt, which comprehends thoſe of Tonquin, Cochin-china, and Camboia.

Kingdom of Azem.

The kingdom of Azem lies to the eaſt of the great Mogul's dominions, to the north of the kingdom of Ava, and to the weſt of the lake Chiamay. It was hardly known before Mirgimola, general of Aurengzebe, conquered it, about the middle of the laſt century. He undertook this expedition with the more confidence, as that country had been without any wars for the ſpace of ſix or ſeven hundred years, and the people had entirely neglected the uſe of arms. It was not difficult to conquer ſuch a people; yet tradition attributes to them the invention of gunpowder, which paſſed from Azem to Pegu, and from Pegu to China, which has given occaſion to ſay, that the Chineſe were the authors of that diſcovery.

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very. It is said, that, in that war, Mirgimola had taken several pieces of cannon, which were all of iron.

This kingdom is one of the best in Asia, and produces every thing that is necessary for the sustenance of man. Mines of gold, silver, steel, lead, and iron, are found here, the property of which the king has reserved for himself, on condition of not levying any subsidies on his people; and, in order not to harrass them by any unseemly labour, he employs none but slaves purchased from his neighbours, to work them. Thus all the inferior subjects of Azem enjoy themselves in ease and affluence, which is not the case with the rest of the Indians, who have scarce any thing but slavery and misery for their portion, in the midst of a country where they ought to live in riches and plenty. The princes reside in the city of Kemmerouf, about twenty-five or thirty days journey from the ancient capital, which bore the same name; but their tombs and those of all the royal family are in the city of Azoo, on the banks of the river Laquia. Every prince builds a kind of chapel in the great pagoda, to serve for his burial-place; and being persuaded that after their death they go to another world, and that those who die sullied by any crime, suffer a great deal, chiefly by hunger and thirst, they place all necessaries near the corpse, to serve them as they may want. The king is interred with those idols of gold and silver which he worshipped in his life-time, a live elephant, twelve camels, six horses, and a great number of hounds, in the belief that all these things will be useful to him in the other world. Barbarity accompanies superstition in this funeral solemnity. At the king's death, the woman whom he has loved best, and the principal officers of his household, poison themselves, that they may have the glory of being interred with him, and of serving him in a future state. If a private person, all his friends and relations must assist at his funeral; and every one must throw into the grave the bracelets and other ornaments he wears.

Kingdom of Ava.

The accounts of those who have travelled into the East, give us little or no information about the kingdom of Ava, which is said to be four times as large as Great Britain. They only tell us that the prince is immensely rich, which appears by the magnificence of his palace.

Kingdom of Pegu.

All that historians relate of the kingdom of Pegu is drawn from Gaspar Balbi, a rich Venetian merchant, who once traded thither. According to him that kingdom had been exposed to several revolts, and had been the theatre

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of a bloody war during all the ſixteenth century. The Peguans may be ranked amongſt the naſtieſt and moſt ſuperſtitious of all mankind. They maintain and worſhip crocodiles, and will drink nothing but the waters of the ditches where thoſe monſtrous animals harbour. By thus expoſing themſelves to the manifeſt hazard of their lives, they have frequently the misfortune to be devoured. They have five principal feſtivals in the year, called ſapans, which they celebrate with an extraordinary magnificence. In one of them the king and queen make a pilgrimage about twelve leagues from the city, riding on a triumphal car, ſo richly adorned with jewels, that it may be ſaid, without an hyperbole, that they carry about them the value of a kingdom. This prince is extremely rich, and has in the chapel of his palace ſeveral pagods of ineſtimable value, ſome of them being of maſſy gold, or ſilver, and adorned with all ſorts of precious ſtones. The talapoins, or prieſts of this country, have no poſſeſſions; but ſuch is the reſpect paid them by the people, that they are never known to want. They preach to them every Monday, not to commit murder, to take from no perſon any thing belonging to him, to do no hurt, to give no offence, to avoid impurity or ſuperſtition, but above all not to worſhip the devil. But their diſcourſes have no effect in the laſt reſpect. The people attached to Manicheiſm believe, that all good comes from God, and that the devil is the author of all the evils that happen to men; and that therefore they ought to worſhip him, that he may not afflict them. This is a common notion among the Indian idolaters.

Kingdom of Laos. There is no country, where more ivory is to be had than in the kingdom of Laos, or Lao. Elephants are ſo numerous in it, that the inhabitants are ſaid to have taken their name from them; many kinds of animals, as oxen and buffaloes, which are here very common; a great quantity of benzoin, the beſt in the Eaſt; lacca, being a kind of earth met with in ſome foreſts, lying about anthills; garden fruits, vaſt quantities of rice, fiſh of an enormous bulk with which the rivers abound, and ſalt ſpontaneouſly formed of a kind of foam which the great rains leave upon the earth, are the other advantages of this kingdom. Nothing can be more ſenſeleſs than the whims with which the prieſts here have poſſeſſed the people, and which they give out as the foundation of their religion. This is, that a buffalo, or wild ox, which nature had formed with all imaginable defects, produced a gourd full

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of black and white men; and that there are four gods who governed the world eighteen thouſand years before it was renewed, and who afterwards retired into a very large and ſpacious column, which was raiſed towards the north. Such viſions, accompanied with corrupt morals, could only render the people as vicious as their prieſts, if the ſeverity of the law did not put a reſtraint on their licentiouſneſs. The propenſity which the Laoangians have to paſſion and bloodſhed, has forced their kings to puniſh, not only thoſe who give a blow, but even thoſe who ſhew anger againſt another. Nay, frequently to inſpire the greater terror, the innocent is involved in the puniſhment of the guilty. If the chief of a family is convicted of any great crime, all who belong to him in the different degrees of conſanguinity are degraded, and deprived of their offices, rights, and privileges; and, for the future, are employed in nothing but the ſervice of the elephants, as gathering graſs for them, carrying it to the king's ſtables, and watching them all night.

Kingdom of Siam.

To the ſouth of thoſe countries lies the kingdom of Siam, the moſt famous of all the Indies. The Portugueſe have given the name of Siam to the capital of the kingdom, which the natives call Crung ſi ayn, thaya', that is, *the excellent city*, or, *the admirable, extraordinary, and angelic city*, becauſe they believe it impregnable. It is built on the river Menan, which means *the ſea of waters*, and forms an iſland two leagues in circuit. The place is beſides every where ſurrounded with a ſtrong wall, and has within itſelf reſources ſufficient to ſupport a ſiege of many months againſt an army fifty thouſand ſtrong. The chief of theſe reſources is an infallible ſuccour from the overflowing of the river every ſix months; ſo that there are no lines which it does not carry off, nor army which it does not oblige to retire. By means of thoſe waters, they have made ſeveral canals, which run through all the ſtreets, without doing any damage; and there are few houſes to which there is not acceſs with a boat. The convenience of tranſporting their effects and landing them quite from the ſea at the warehouſes, with the other advantages of the kingdom, have drawn traders thither from all parts. At firſt the Portugueſe were maſters of the commerce; but ſome inſults offered to the Indians and Dutch merchants gave the latter a pretence to declare themſelves their enemies; and in 1634 they built one of the fineſt lodges they have in the Eaſt. Notwithſtanding, the Portugueſe were not intirely expelled; they have ſtill factories there

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as well as the Engliſh, French, Chineſe, and ſome others, who all dwell in the two vaſt and rich ſuburbs which lie to the eaſt and weſt of the city. Here it is that ſome modern travellers relate that they have ſeen immenſe treaſures of all kinds. The riches of the country are chiefly diſplayed in the pagodas, and the prince's palace, by the quantity of workmanſhip in gold with which they are adorned; by their prodigious bulk, their admirable ſtructure, and the incredible collections of precious ſtones of all kinds. However, all this kingdom, which is very large, is nothing better than a deſart. In proportion as one advances into the country, ſcarce any thing is ſeen but foreſts and wild beaſts. The people, who are miſerable, dwell on the banks of the rivers, and prefer that ſituation to any other, becauſe the lands, which are overflowed ſix months in the year, produce, almoſt without any culture, great quantities of rice, which does not thrive but in water. In this rice conſiſt all the riches of the country. Thus in going up from Bancok to Luvo, is ſeen, with reſpect to the people and the cities, all that can merit any attention in this kingdom. Haughtineſs, deſpotiſm, and an abſolute government, are the only marks by which the prince chuſes to be diſtinguiſhed from all other ſovereigns. The reſpect which he demands of his people reaches almoſt to adoration, and the poſture in which they muſt appear in his preſence is a teſtimony of it. Even in council, which laſts ſometimes four hours, the miniſters of ſtate, and the mandarins, are continually proſtrated before him. They never ſpeak to him but on their knees, having their hands raiſed to their heads, making every moment profound reverences, and accompanying their diſcourſe with pompous titles, celebrating his power and his goodneſs. When he goes abroad, all are obliged to keep within doors. His ſubjects are ſlaves, who poſſeſs nothing but what belongs to him. Even nobility is not hereditary, conſiſting only in honours and employments, which the prince beſtows, and which he may withdraw whenever he pleaſes.

Kingdom of Malacca. The king of Siam's dominions ſtretch ſouthward to the neighbourhood of Ligor, where the kingdom of Malacca begins. This country is that peninſula or tongue of land which lies between the ſtreight of that name and the gulf of Siam. Some travellers aſſure us, that it is divided into ſeven kingdoms, every one of which may be about ten leagues in breadth, and thirty in length. It was diſcovered in 1509, by Seguera; and in 1511, by Alphonſo Albuquerque,

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buquerque, who made himself master of the city of Malacca. The Dutch, supported by the forces of the king of Thor, in 1606, began to disturb the Portuguese in their possession, and after thirty-five years of continual hostilities, took it from them in 1641.

The inhabitants of Malacca, or the Malais, are, for the most part, savages, and live after the manner of beasts. The heat of the climate, which is almost under the line, renders their colour extremely swarthy; and they are very fond of Europeans on account of their whiteness. As soon as they arrive on their coasts, they offer them their wives and daughters, that they may have children like them. Notwithstanding the barbarity of their manners, their language is reckoned the finest in all the Indies, where it is at least as common as the French in Europe. It is very easily acquired, because it has no inflections, either in nouns or verbs. The country is rich only on account of its commerce with the Chinese: it must then have been through ignorance or mistake, that the ancients gave it the name of the Golden Chersonese; or rather it is evident they did not give it to that kingdom. Yet we are told by some missionaries, that they reckon their riches by bars of gold, and that every bar contains four quintals.

Kingdom of Camboia.

On the south and west by the sea, and the dominions of the king of Siam, lies the kingdom of Camboia. This country, which throughout its whole extent is watered by the river Mecon, produces in abundance all that is necessary for the life of man, whether in rice or flesh, in cocoas, or fruits of all other kinds. Yet it is ill-peopled, and its trade inconsiderable. The capital of the same name, is the only place which deserves notice. The prince resides in a very ordinary palace, but it is defended by a great number of Chinese cannon, and other pieces of artillery which were saved from the wreck of two Dutch vessels thrown upon the coast of this kingdom. There is a temple here of a very particular structure, whose beauty is much commended. It is supported by wooden pillars varnished with black; the foliages and reliefs are gilded: even the pavement is valuable, and is preserved by mats laid over it. The priests who serve in it hold the first rank in the state.

Use of betel in India.

The use of betel is not peculiar to the people of this country; nothing is so common throughout the Indies, and bread is not more so in other places of the world. It is a plant which creeps along the ground like pease or hops;

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and its ſtalk being weak, it muſt be ſupported by a prop, or planted near the tree areca, to which it fixes itſelf like ivy. Its leaf reſembles that of the citron-tree, though a little longer; its ſtalks and fibres are alſo ſtronger, and it becomes reddiſh when dried. Betel thrives beſt in watery places, ſuch as the banks of the ſea or rivers. There it bears a fruit ſhaped like a rat's tail, but produces none in climates too hot or too cold, where the inhabitants muſt be contented with the leaf, which is prepared with the fruit of the areca, and a little lime made of oyſter-ſhells. An Indian is ſeldom ſeen without betel in his mouth. As ſoon as any one goes into a houſe on buſineſs, or to make a viſit, it is brought and preſented to the company by way of compliment. When foreign ambaſſadors are admitted to an audience of the king, they find him commonly reposing on his couch, or ſeated croſs-legged on a carpet on the ground, with an officer in waiting, who holds his betel, which he chews continually, throwing out the huſks and the ſaliva which it produces. The greateſt honour he can do them is to invite them to taſte his betel. The Indians ſay it faſtens the gums, preſerves the teeth, makes the breath ſweet, is good for the ſtomach, promotes digeſtion, prevents wind and vomiting, to which they are very ſubject, and laſtly, prevents the ſcurvy. Notwithſtanding all thoſe real or imaginary properties, few Europeans can accuſtom themſelves to it. In many it occaſions ſickneſs, others it perfectly intoxicates, but ſo as not to laſt long.

Uſe of the areca. The areca, which is uſed with the leaves of the betel, is from a tree nearly reſembling the cocoa in height and ſhape, except that its trunk is ſmaller, and its leaves ſhorter. From beneath the leaves there proceeds a long maſs, which forms a bunch or cluſter of fruit like nuts or apricots: the flowers lie intermingled with the fruit. Two months after the flowers fall off, the huſks which cover the fruit, begin to open and fall off: then an oblong fruit appears, of the bulk of a middling plum, and of a whitiſh and ſhining colour; its ſhell becomes firm, compact, and reddiſh; the pulp contained in it is of a brown caſt, bordering on red, and ſoft and aſtringent to the taſte. The Indians prepare the pulp, or kernel, of this fruit with the leaves of the betel, dividing a nut into eight or ten parts.

Kingdom of Ciampa and Cochin-china. South-eaſt of the kingdom of Camboia lies that of Ciampa, but ſo ſmall, that it has not merited the particular attention of travellers. It is bounded on the north by the deſarts

deſarts of Cochin-china, another kingdom, of which authors have given us a notion more ſplendid than real. We ought, therefore, to prefer the ſimple and ingenuous account of F. Alexander of Rhodes, a Jeſuit, and famous miſſionary in thoſe parts. This kingdom, according to him, was formerly a province of China, and was ſeparated from it now upwards of two centuries ago, by the revolt of a governor ſent thither by the king of Tonquin, who cauſed himſelf to be declared king. There is no country in the torrid zone wherein the four ſeaſons are better diſtinguiſhed. Though the rivers are not conſiderable, they are ſources of its plenty. During the months of September, October, and November, they riſe every fortnight, overflow all the fields for three days, and render them ſo fertile by their ſlime, that they can ſow and reap twice a year. The ſoil produces rice, ſeveral ſorts of fruits and herbs, pepper, cinnamon, benzoin, eagle and calemba-wood. Gold, ſilver, ſilk, cotton, and procelain, are likewiſe to be found here. Amongſt other rare animals, are rhinoceroſes and elephants, of an extraordinary ſize and ſurpriſing docility. The ſea abounds with excellent fiſh. There are ſixty good harbours, which occaſion the inhabitants to apply themſelves much to trade and navigation; that of Faiſo is one of the moſt conſiderable. The city is inhabited by Chineſe and Japaneſe, who carry on a free trade under the protection of the prince. It is defended by a fortreſs, and ſituated on a navigable river, a little above its mouth.

Northward of Cochin-china lies the kingdom of Tonquin. The voyages to this place which religion and commerce have given occaſion to, have procured us a very circumſtantial knowlege of the government and nature of this country. Tonquin had been heretofore ſubject to the vaſt empire of China, when a famous robber, called Din, put himſelf at the head of a body of men of his own profeſſion, into whom he inſpired the reſolution of taking up arms, and throwing off the yoke of all ſervitude. He ſucceeded; and thoſe whom he engaged in the revolt, out of gratitude, placed the crown upon his head. The happineſs which the Tonquineſe flattered themſelves to have acquired by their independence, became to them a ſource of miſeries and cruel wars, ſtill more pernicious than their former ſubjection to the Chineſe emperors. For ſeven centuries after their revolt, they were almoſt continually in arms, one againſt another, in ſupport of the different factions which ambition and jealouſy had raiſed up among them;

Kingdom of Tonquin.

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them; and the families on the throne have been already changed ſix times.

The iſſue of the laſt civil war was a treaty, by which the competitor of the king Le, leſs deſirous of the title of ſovereign than of real power and royal authority, left him all the external ſplendor of a monarch, on condition that he ſhould have the abſolute command in the armies, with the greateſt part of the revenues of the kingdom, and that his deſcendants ſhould ſucceed to the ſame privileges. By virtue of this agreement, there are two ſorts of kings; he who receives all the honours of royalty is called Bua, and the Chouah has all its advantages. The Bua, ſenſible of the diminution of his power, is ſeldom ſeen out of his palace. He is taken up almoſt every day in giving audience to his ſubjects, hearing their complaints, and determining their private differences; which is the utmoſt extent of his power, for he can ſet forth no act or edict concerning the public government, without the conſent of the Chouah. The princes, his ſons, partake of his ſervitude: they never go out of the palace but four times a year, and that only ſix days each time; and they are, beſides, attended by officers whom the Chouah appoints for them. In the firſt of thoſe ſix days of liberty, they viſit the temples; the two following they take the diverſion of hunting; and, during the three laſt, they ſail upon the river in gallies magnificently adorned. The right of primogeniture does not regulate the ſucceſſion to the crown; the will of the father decides it in favour of him whom he loves or eſteems moſt. As ſoon as he is declared, the Chouah, followed by his principal officers, the counſellors of ſtate, and the eunuchs, do him homage, and take an oath to place him on the throne after his father's death.

The pomp and magnificence of the ceremonies obſerved at the king's funeral, are very extraordinary. During the ſixty-five days that follow his deceaſe, he is ſerved as if ſtill alive, and proviſions are diſtributed amongſt the bonzes and poor. The whole nation puts on mourning, and every one wears it according to his rank; the mandarins for three years, the king's houſhold nine months, the nobleſſe ſix, and the people three. Theſe three years are times of ſadneſs, during which no rejoicings are allowed, except at the coronation of the ſucceeding prince. The cuſtom is to carry the body of the dead king into the deſarts lying beyond Bodego. It is two days journey from Keco, the capital of the kingdom, to that city. But, as the

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the king and all the court go thither on foot, it takes them up fifteen or ſixteen days. All the road is covered with a ſtuff of a violet colour, and at every quarter of a league there are places for refreſhment. The Chouah takes care that there ſhall be lodgings for every day. In the midſt of an immenſe and magnificent retinue of officers, horſes, and elephants, is the chariot which carries the king's coffin, drawn by eight harts trained for that purpoſe. After the corps comes to Bodego, it is put into a galley, and is attended only by the ſix principal eunuchs of the court, who inter it in a remote place, after having obliged themſelves by oath never to reveal it. This ſecrecy is, perhaps, an article of religion, or a precaution to prevent the treaſures buried with him from being carried off, which they imagine he may have an occaſion for in the other world. It is ſaid, that the princes and princeſſes order themſelves to be buried near him, out of a motive of gratitude, and that they may continue to render him their ſervices.

After this funeral ceremony comes on the coronation of the new king, which diffuſes pleaſures and diverſions over the city of Keco and the country about. He is carried upon an elephant into the great court of the palace, which is covered with rich tapeſtries in form of a tent, and there he receives the oath of fidelity from the great men of the kingdom, to whom he makes a preſent of ſeveral cakes of gold, and ſmall bars of ſilver, the only money uſed in this country. Afterwards, a large camp is erected in the midſt of a vaſt plain along the river Chale. The king goes thither with all the officers of his houſhold, and a great part of the army, and there receives the oaths of the deputies of his kingdom, and of the people. One half of the month paſſes away in rejoicings; every day is remarkable for the diverſity of feſtivals, and the generoſity of the prince; even the darkneſs of the night is not unemployed; for then the amuſement of various ſcenes of fireworks charm the ſenſes, which are ſaid to be infinitely finer and more curious than thoſe we have in Europe.

This particular ſpecies of ingenuity as well as many others, are a conſequence of the emulation which the kings of Tonquin, like thoſe of China, have encouraged amongſt their ſubjects, in order to refine and improve all the ſciences. Nobility, with ſuitable revenues, is the reward of thoſe who excel in the knowlege of the laws, of mathematics,

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mathematics, aſtronomy, and natural philoſophy. Several days in the year are ſet apart for the examination of thoſe who preſent themſelves, and ſometimes there are near three thouſand candidates. The king honours this ceremony with his preſence; he confers nobility on thoſe who have given ſatisfaction to the queſtions of the mandarins; he orders a robe of violet ſattin to be given them, and appoints the cities and villages which are to produce the revenues he is pleaſed to aſſign them.

The phyſicians are another claſs of the learned, and much eſteemed; all their ſtudy is to know ſimples, and to apply them according to the different diſtempers. They pretend to infallible remedies for ſeveral diſeaſes thought to be incurable in Europe. They make uſe of tea, which is brought from China and Japan, for the cure of pains in the head, the ſtone, and cholic.

Where the arts flouriſh, it ſeldom happens that the manners of the people are rough and unpoliſhed. The Tonquineſe are affable, and naturally formed to the laws of reaſon. The gravity and modeſty of their garb, ſhews their character. Both ſexes are cloathed almoſt in the ſame manner: their dreſs is a long robe, pretty ſtrait, with a cloſe neck, reaching down to the heels, and kept tight about the waiſt with a ſilk girdle of gold and ſilver tiſſue: the military dreſs comes no farther than the knees. It is the common cuſtom of the country to go barefooted all the year. The Tonquineſe ladies are as modeſt and reſerved as the common women are free; they wear a ſort of very broad hat, made of the leaves of a tree, and adorned with a net-work of thread curiouſly wrought. They wear their hair as long as it will grow, and dreſs it with great care; the men tie it under the neck, or leave it looſe behind, eſpecially the mandarins and learned men. They are of a ſtrong and hardy conſtitution, their ſtature middling and well-proportioned, their features juſt and agreeable. Thoſe who live in the cities are rather white than brown, but the country people are almoſt all olive-coloured. All are indefatigable in whatever buſineſs they apply to. Their judgment is juſt, and they are capable of long application. Nature has bleſſed them with ſo happy a memory, that, perhaps, there is no nation which ſurpaſſes them in that particular; whatever they ſtudy or write, all is done ſinging, in order to imprint it the better on their minds. They ſtill make uſe of lunar months. The lower claſs of people are

ſlaves

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slaves during one part of the year; for, except the citizens of Kecò, all tradesmen whatever are obliged to work three months for the royal family, and two more for the mandarins and great lords. One of their most laborious employments is to lop the trees for feeding the elephants belonging to the king and the army. Their principal riches consist in great quantities of silk, musk, and aloes-wood, which they sell to foreigners: they value themselves much on their fairness in trade, which is the more surprising, as they are neighbours to the Chinese, and have frequent dealings with that cunning people, who are versed in all manner of deceit.

These are the advantageous lights in which the Tonquinese appear; but, when we take a view of their worship, the scene is changed: nothing is seen but error, impiety, and extravagant superstition. Of the three sects into which they are divided, that of a hermit, called Chachabout, might be considered as the only reasonable one, by the observation of the precepts of the law of nature, of which he has made ten express commandments, if it was not corrupted by imaginations and chimeras founded on the metempsychosis, and if it did not bring up its votaries in idolatry. The second is, that of the philosopher Confucius, whose memory is so famous throughout China, and the neighbouring states. The doctrine of his books, as explained by the learned men of this country, is nothing but idolatry, or, perhaps, a refined atheism, acknowleging no other God but the heavens, or virtue, and supposing, that the human soul evaporates into air at death. The third sect is, that of Lanthu, originally a Chinese, whose whole study was the contriving of enchantments, and the impostures of magic, which he unhappily rendered respected by a false outside of zeal and charity for the poor. Most of the bonzes, or Tonquinese priests, offer no sacrifices, and give no responses till they have consulted the devil by some magic charms, or ceremonies, all tending to that wicked purpose.

We now come to the Indian and Oriental islands, which consist of, 1. The Ladrone Islands. 2. The Japan Islands. 3. The Philippine Islands. 4. The Moluccas and Amboyna. 5. The Banda Islands. 6. The islands of Celebes, Gilolo, Ceram, &c. which surround the Moluccas, and Banda Islands. 7. The Sunda Islands, as Borneo, Sumatra, and Java, and those that lie to the eastward of Java,

Indian and Oriental Islands.

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Java, Bally, Lomboe, Timor, &c. 8. The Nicobar Iſlands. 9. The Andaman Iſlands. 10. The Maldiva Iſlands. And 11. The iſland of Ceylon.

Ladrone Iſlands. The Ladrone, called alſo the Marian Iſlands, are about twelve in number; they are ſituate in the Pacific Ocean, in 140 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between 12 and 24 degrees of north latitude. Guam, the largeſt, is forty miles long, and twelve broad. The Spaniards have a fort, and a ſmall garriſon of thirty or forty men, in the chief town of the ſame name; and moſt ſhips touch here in their voyage from Mexico to the Eaſt Indies. Theſe iſlands were diſcovered by Magellan, in his voyage to the Spice-Iſlands, in India, by the weſt, in the year 1521. They are remarkable for producing a fruit as big as a football, which yields a ſoft pulp like the crumb of a white loaf, and is therefore called bread-fruit by ſeamen. Their ſwift-ſailing ſloops, going generally twenty-four miles in an hour, is another peculiarity. One of them that was diſpatched to Manila in the Philippine Iſlands performed the voyage in four days, being one thouſand two hundred miles. It was at the little iſland of Tinian, ſituate north of Guam, that lord Anſon firſt touched, after paſſing the Pacific Ocean, in his voyage round the world. He found great refreſhments in it, the iſland, though uninhabited, abounding in cattle, fruits, and other neceſſaries. The Japan Iſlands may be ſeen deſcribed in the ſame ſection with China.

Philippine Iſlands. The Philippine Iſlands are ſituate in the Chineſian Sea, between 114 and 131 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between 5 and 19 degrees of north latitude; comprehending the iſlands of Luconia, or Manila, Tandaga, or Samar, Maſbate, Mindora, Luban, Paragoa, Panay, Leyte, Bohol, Sibu, Sogbu, Negros, St. John, Xollo, and Mindanao. They lie three hundred miles ſouth-eaſt of China: and Manila, the chief, is four hundred miles long, and two hundred miles broad. They were diſcovered by Ferdinand Magellan, a Portugueſe gentleman, who had ſerved his native country both in the wars of Africa and in the Eaſt Indies; particularly under Albuquerque, the famous Portugueſe general, who reduced Goa and Malacca to the obedience of that crown. Magellan, having a conſiderable ſhare in thoſe actions, and finding himſelf neglected by the government of Portugal, and even denied, as it is ſaid, the ſmall advance of a ducat a month in his pay, left the court of Portugal in diſguſt, and offered his ſervice to Charles V. then emperor of Germany and king of Spain,

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Spain, to whom he ſhewed there was a probability of diſcovering a way to the Spice Iſlands in the Eaſt Indies, by the weſt: whereupon, the command of five ſmall ſhips being given him, he ſet ſail from Seville on the 10th of Auguſt, 1519; and ſtanding over to the coaſt of South America, continued his voyage to the ſouthward to 52 degrees, where he formerly hit upon a ſtrait, ſince called the Strait of Magellan, which carried him into the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea; and then, ſteering northward, repaſſed the equator; after which, he ſailed weſt over that vaſt ocean, till he arrived at Guam, one of the Ladrones, on the 6th of March, 1521, and ſoon after came to the Philippine Iſlands, which he took poſſeſſion of in the name of the king of Spain, but happened to be killed in a ſkirmiſh in one of them. His people, however, arrived afterwards at the Moluccas, or Clove Iſlands, where they left a colony, and returned to Spain, by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, being the firſt men that ever ſailed round the globe. But there was no attempt made by the Spaniards to ſubdue, or plant, the Philippine Iſlands, until the year 1564, in the reign of Philip II. king of Spain, when don Lewis de Velaſco, viceroy of Mexico, ſent Michael Lopez Delagaſpes, with a fleet thither from Mexico, and a force ſufficient to make a conqueſt of theſe iſlands, which he named the Philippines, in honour of Philip II. ſon of Charles V. who was then upon the throne of Spain, and they have ever ſince been ſubject to that crown.

In the late war, Spain having entered into engagements with France, in conſequence of the family-compact of the houſe of Bourbon, it was found expedient in England to declare war alſo againſt Spain; whereupon a force was fitted out from our Eaſt India ſettlements, particularly Madras, for the conqueſt of the Philippine Iſlands. Manila, the capital, was taken on the 6th of October, 1762, by ſtorm, after twelve days operation; but to ſave ſo fine a city from deſtruction, it was ſtipulated to pay a ranſom for it, to the amount of a million ſterling.

The inhabitants of the Philippine Iſlands conſiſt of Chineſe, Ethiopians, Malais, Spaniards, Portugueſe, Pintadoes, or painted people, and Meſtees, a mixture of all theſe. It is obſervable, that the features of the blacks of theſe iſlands are as agreeable as thoſe of the white people. Manila, lying between the eaſtern and weſtern continents, was once eſteemed the beſt ſituation in the world for trade.

Two

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Two veſſels ſailing yearly to Acapulco in Mexico, loaded with the riches of the Eaſt, returned, as they do at this day, freighted with ſilver, and make four hundred per cent. profit. There is not a ſoil in the world that produces greater plenty of all things neceſſary for life, as appears by the multitude of inhabitants found in the woods and mountains, and only ſubſiſted on the fruits of the earth, and the veniſon they take. Nor can any country in the world appear more beautiful; for there is a perpetual verdure, and buds, bloſſoms, and fruit, are found upon the trees all the year round, as well on the mountains as the cultivated gardens. Vaſt quantities of gold are waſhed down from the hills by the rains, and found mixed with the ſand of their rivers: there are alſo mines of other metals, and plenty of cattle of all ſorts. Theſe iſlands alſo, being hot and moiſt, produce abundance of venomous creatures, as the ſoil does poiſonous herbs and flowers, which not only kill thoſe that touch or taſte them, but ſo infect the air, that many people die in the time of their bloſſoming. They are alſo ſubject to terrible earthquakes: by one that happened in 1645, a third part of the city of Manila was overthrown, and no leſs than three thouſand people periſhed in the ruins. The Spaniſh vice-roy reſides at Manila, and lives in the ſtate of a ſovereign prince. The government is ſaid to be one of the beſt in the gift of the king of Spain: the archbiſhop of Manila is a kind of pope in this part of the world; but as the inhabitants are a compound of every Indian nation, every religion is tolerated.

All the Philippine Iſlands belong to the crown of Spain, except Mindanao, the largeſt of them next to Manila. It is near two hundred miles long, and one hundred and fifty miles broad, inhabited by very different people; thoſe of the inland country are ſuppoſed to be the ancient Pagan inhabitants, whom the Mohammedans, who poſſeſs the coaſts, have driven up into the mountains.

Molucca, or Clove Iſlands. The Moluccas, or Clove Iſlands, are ſituate ſouth of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between 1 degree ſouth, and 2 degrees north latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Bachiam, Machiam, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydor. They produce neither corn nor rice, but the natives make bread of ſago. Beſides the tropical fruits, they once produced great quantities of cloves; but the Dutch ſend people every year to root up all the plants of that kind, leſt other nations ſhould poſſeſs

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feſs them, and have tranſplanted the cloves to Amboyna, which lies ſouth of the iſland of Ceram. The largeſt of the Molucca Iſlands is Ternate, which is not thirty miles in circumference.

Banda Iſlands.

The Banda, or Nutmeg Iſlands, are ſituate between 127 and 128 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between 4 and 5 degrees of ſouth latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Lantor, Poleron, Roſinging, Pooloway, and Gonapi. Theſe alone produce the nutmeg, which is covered by the mace: they alſo produce moſt of the tropical fruits, but ſcarce any corn or cattle; the largeſt of them is ſcarce twenty miles round. The Dutch keep the inhabitants entirely dependent on them for proviſions.

Iſlands ſurrounding the Moluccas and Banda.

The iſlands ſurrounding the Moluccas and Banda, and lying under, or near the equator, are, Amboyna, Celebes, or Macaſſar, Gilolo, Ceram, Flores, Timor, Miſecomby, Bouton, Bouro, and a few others.

Amboyna.

Amboyna is ſituate in 126 degrees of eaſt longitude, and 3 degrees 40 minutes of ſouth latitude, between the iſlands of Molucca and Banda, and commands both. It is about ſeventy miles in circumference, and the Dutch have a ſtrong caſtle in it, defended by ſeven or eight hundred men, to protect their plantations of cloves. Here the Engliſh and Dutch had their reſpective factories and ſettlements, and had by treaty agreed to divide the Spice Iſlands between them; but the Dutch, under pretence of a plot the Engliſh were concerned in againſt them, ſeized upon the Engliſh factors and merchants, tortured them by all the cruel methods they could invent, in order to make them confeſs a plot, and then put them to death. They alſo ſeized upon the Engliſh ſhipping, expelled the Engliſh from their ſettlements in the Banda Iſlands, which had put themſelves under the protection of the king of Great Britain, and proceeded to maſſacre and extirpate the natives, and this in a time of full peace, in the year 1622, juſt after a treaty was concluded between the two nations for confirming their reſpective rights and poſſeſſions in the Eaſt-Indies; and they have continued in poſſeſſion of theſe invaluable iſlands ever ſince.

Celebes, Gilolo, Ceram, &c.

The iſland of Celebes, or Macaſſar, is ſituate under the equator, between the iſland of Borneo, and the Spice Iſlands; and is five hundred miles long, and two hundred broad. It produces no ſpice, except pepper, but opium in abundance. No place is furniſhed with a greater variety of poiſons; and the natives, it is ſaid, ſtudy which will have the moſt ſpeedy operation. Their darts,

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darts, which are dipt in poiſon, give inſtant death; if a limb be cut off immediately after the wound is received, it will not ſave the patient's life. The Dutch have fortified this iſland, as a barrier againſt all nations that may attempt to viſit the iſlands where cloves and nutmegs grow. Gilolo, another large iſland, which lies under the equator, near the Spice Iſlands, is fortified by the Dutch in like manner. Ceram alſo, which covers the nutmeg iſlands, they have ſecured by their fortifications, and will ſink any ſhip that ſhall attempt to traffic in thoſe ſeas.

Sunda Iſlands. The Sunda Iſlands are ſituate in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between 8 degrees north, and 8 degrees ſouth latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lamboe, and Banca.

Borneo. Borneo is ſituate under the equator, and is the largeſt iſland in the world, being eight hundred miles long, and ſeven hundred miles broad. The flat country near the coaſt is overflowed moſt part of the year, which makes the air very unhealthful; and they build their towns upon floats in the middle of their rivers. Beſides rice, cotton, canes, pepper, and the tropical fruits, diamonds are here found of a large ſize, and excellent water. The coaſt is governed by Mohammedan princes, and the inland parts inhabited by Pagans.

Sumatra. Sumatra is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending 5 degrees and upwards north-weſt of it, and 5 degrees to the ſouth-eaſt; and is one thouſand miles long, and one hundred and fifty broad. This is ſuppoſed to be the Ophir of the ancients, being rich in gold; but what the Europeans trade with the inhabitants chiefly for is their pepper. Both the Engliſh and Dutch have ſeveral colonies and ſettlements here: the chief of the Britiſh ſettlements are thoſe of Bencoolen and Fort Marlbro', on the weſt coaſt, from whence the Eaſt-India company import more pepper than from any other country in India. Bencoolen was taken by the French, who put the Dutch in poſſeſſion of it; but the definitive treaty of peace in 1763, recovered it for the Engliſh. The coaſts are poſſeſſed by Mohammedan, and the inland country by Pagan princes.

Java. Java, ſituate ſouth of Borneo, is ſeven hundred miles long, and two hundred broad. The country is mountainous and woody in the middle, but a flat coaſt and a great many marſhes render the air unhealthful. It produces

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duces pepper, ſugar, tobacco, rice, coffee, cocoa-nuts, plantains, and other tropical fruits. The Dutch are abſolute maſters of the greateſt part of the iſland, particularly of the north-coaſt, though there are ſtill ſome princes beyond the mountains on the ſouth-coaſt, who maintain their independency. Batavia, in this iſland, is the capital of all the Dutch dominions in India, an exceeding fine town and port, well fortified, and defended by a caſtle and ſtrong garriſon: they have about twenty thouſand forces in the iſland, either Dutch, or formed out of the ſeveral nations they have inſlaved; and they have a fleet of between twenty and thirty men of war, with which they give law to every power on the coaſt of Aſia and Africa, and to all the European powers that viſit the Indian Ocean. It was but a little before the Revolution they expelled us our ſettlement at Bantam; but no nation has been dealt more cruelly with than the Chineſe, who fled thither, rather than ſubmit to the Tartar princes. There are one hundred thouſand of them in the iſland, and about thirty thouſand reſided in the city of Batavia, where they had a particular quarter aſſigned them, and grew very rich by traffic. In the year 1740, the Dutch, pretending that the Chineſe were in a plot againſt them, ſent a body of troops into their quarter, and demanded their arms, which the Chineſe readily delivered up; and the next day the governor ſent another body of troops, with orders to murder and maſſacre every one of the Chineſe, men, women, and children. Some relate, there were twenty thouſand, others thirty thouſand, that were put to death without any manner of trial; and yet the barbarous governor, who was the inſtrument of this cruel proceeding, had the aſſurance to embark for Europe, imagining he had amaſſed wealth enough to ſecure him againſt any proſecution in Holland; but the Dutch, finding themſelves deteſted and abhorred by all mankind for this piece of tyranny, endeavoured to throw the odium of it on the governor, though he had the hands of all the council of Batavia, except one, to the order for the maſſacre The ſtates, therefore, diſpatched a packet to the Cape of Good Hope, containing orders to apprehend the governor of Batavia, if he came to Europe that way, and to ſend him back to Batavia to be tried. He was accordingly apprehended at the Cape, but has never been heard of ſince. It is ſuppoſed, he was thrown over-board in his paſſage to Batavia, that there might be no further enquiries into the matter; and, it is ſaid, all the wealth this merciful gen-

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tleman had amaſſed, and ſent over before him in four ſhips, was caſt away in the paſſage. The reſt of the Sunda Iſlands are inconſiderable.

Andaman and Nicobar Iſles.

The Andaman and Nicobar Iſlands lie near the coaſt of Malacca, at the entrance of the bay of Bengal; they afford no merchandize but proviſions, beſides the tropical fruits, with which they ſupply the ſhipping that touch there.

Maldivia Iſles.

The Maldivia Iſlands conſiſt of numberleſs little rocks, juſt above the water, lying between the equator and Cape Comorin, in the Hither India, and afford little more than rice, the tropical fruits, and fiſh; beſides the little ſhells called cowries, which ſerve inſtead of ſmall caſh in moſt of the Indian nations.

Iſland of Ceylon.

Ceylon is the laſt iſland of note in this part of the world. It is ſituated about 45 leagues from Cape Comorin, between the 6th and 10th degree of north latitude, and between the 79th and 82d degree of eaſt longitude; and is about ſixty leagues long, and above two hundred in circumference. Some imagine it to be the Taprobana of the ancients. It was firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1506, and in 1602, began to be viſited by the Dutch, who, encouraged and aſſiſted by the natives, ſucceſſively ſeized all the forts poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe, whom they drove quite out of the iſland in 1657, by the reduction of Colombo, the handſomeſt and ſtrongeſt town in Ceylon. In 1672, the French made an attempt to ſettle on this iſland; and the king of Candi, deſirous of employing them againſt the Dutch, as he had formerly employed the Dutch againſt the Portugueſe, had ceded to them by treaty the port of Gottiar, ſituated at the bottom of the bay of Trinquemaille, on the eaſt ſide of the iſland; but the enterprize failing, the Dutch company remained ſole maſters of the coaſts, and of the cinnamon trade; but were ſtill on bad terms with the natives, who continually reproached them with their knavery, and would place no confidence in them. The ſeeds of diſcontent once ſown ſeldom fail to ſhoot out. The Dutch on their ſide were continually bent upon oppreſſing and enſlaving the natives; their inherent temper, wherever they have any power, can never ſhew them in the character of lenity: at laſt their repeated cruelties cauſed the natives to riſe and deſtroy moſt of them, with the plantations of cinnamon and other ſpices. This happened in the year 1761. Whether they have ſince repoſſeſſed themſelves intirely of their ſettlements in this iſland is un-

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uncertain; they have at leaſt endeavoured to do ſo, and it is likely they have got ſome footing again, having had for a conſiderable time none to oppoſe them but the natives.

Ceylon produces many things beſides cinnamon, with which the inhabitants might carry on a great trade; ſuch as long pepper, cotton, ivory, ſeveral drugs and roots uſeful in dying and in medicine, cardamom, mirabolans, ſilk, tobacco, ebony, excellent timber for building, lead ore, betel, wild honey, muſk, wax, cryſtal, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, ſugar, corcoma, rice, of which the Dutch carry a great quantity to the coaſt of Coromandel; iron, ſteel, copper, gold and ſilver, all ſorts of precious ſtones, except diamonds; and laſtly, elephants. Indeed, the mines of gold and ſilver are prohibited to be worked; the precious ſtones are all reſerved for the king; and ſulphur and ſaltpetre are not allowed to be exported, but are refined on the iſland: whence the commerce of the Dutch may be ſaid to be confined almoſt to cinnamon; and even for this they trade only with the natives adjoining to their ſettlements, who are kept under ſubjection by the awe of their garriſons. The cinnamon tree does not grow on all parts of the iſland: ſome parts produce very few trees, and others none at all. What is called the cinnamon-field, which belongs wholly to the Dutch, lies between Negambo and Gallietes, comprehending the weſt and ſouth coaſts of the iſland. The beſt cinnamon grows in the neighbourhood of Colombo and Negambo; that at Point de Galles is pretty good; the reſt is middling. Cinnamon is divided into three ſorts, fineſt, middling, and coarſe. The beſt is taken from young trees; and as the trees advance in years, the bark degenerates. The trees multiply very faſt, and almoſt without culture: but the Dutch, to keep up the value of cinnamon, obſtruct their propagation. The Dutch alſo export a conſiderable number of elephants from Ceylon to India, where they are much valued, the ſmalleſt ſelling for upwards of forty guineas, and the largeſt for about ſeventy pounds ſterling. Their teeth are larger, whiter, and of a finer grain than any that come from India or Africa.

Before the Europeans appeared in India, the Chineſe were maſters of the trade of Ceylon; afterwards the Perſians, Arabians, and Ethiopians came in for a ſhare of it; at laſt the Dutch excluded all other nations.

Some reflections on Aſia in general.

Aſia has much the advantage over the other three parts of the world in reſpect of fertility, opulence, and populouſneſs, except where the tyranny of the government has laid

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laid an invincible obſtacle on them. With regard to its ſoil, it is plain that nature has been extremely munificent to it, and that it abundantly repays all the coſt and labour expended on it, both in the quantity and quality of its produce; and that the grain and fruit it yields, are by far more delicious than thoſe of Europe, and in much greater plenty and variety. This is viſible by what has been ſaid of Perſia, China, Japan, and ſome other parts, where the lands are hereditary, and every owner encouraged to make the beſt of every ſpot; whereas, in thoſe vaſt tracts of Aſia which groan under the Turkiſh yoke, though naturally as rich and fruitful, at leaſt they were ſo in better times, and under eaſier governments, ſcarce one tenth part is turned to the advantage it formerly was, and might ſtill be, with proper encouragement. This is a plain indication, that it is not the pretended natural indolence of the inhabitants, but the precarious property of the lands, that makes ſo many rich and fruitful countries lie uncultivated, ſo many once opulent cities and provinces either intirely laid waſte, or ſo poorly inhabited in the latter; whilſt, in the former, where property is ſecured to the induſtrious owner, every country is well tilled, and full of inhabitants; and among theſe, a much greater number of ingenious men than of rude and idle, who take pleaſure in exerting their application to trades, manufactures, and all ſorts of commerce, all which muſt naturally riſe and fall, according to the good or bad principles that conſtitute the policy of the government.

Now, conſidering the ſtate of arts, religious rites, and civil inſtitutions, as ſpread over the face of our globe, it will appear from the lights we have concerning theſe matters, that Aſia has originally contributed to the peopling of the other parts, and that conſequently a good argument may be deduced from hence in favour of the truth of the Moſaic hiſtory. According to the ſcriptures, the whole race of mankind iſſued from thence at two periods, firſt, on the expulſion of Adam from Paradiſe, a place ſituated near the Tigris and Euphrates; and ſecondly, when the earth was repeopled upon the deſcent of Noah from the ark at Mount Ararat, a conſiderable eminence likewiſe in Aſia. Moſes himſelf has informed us concerning the firſt inhabitation of many of the eaſtern countries, and of the names and extraction of the firſt planters of them; but what is moſt remarkable in the caſe, the moſt ancient hiſtories and accounts we have, thoſe of Moſes excepted, are concerning ſuch countries and kingdoms as lie in the eaſtern

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eaſtern parts of the world, ſuch as Egypt, China, Babylon, &c. clearly ſhewing, according to the Moſaic account of things, that theſe places were the firſt inhabited, and the firſt cultivated. Hence, it would be no difficult matter to evince the progreſs of arts and ſciences, of religious uſages, and civil cuſtoms; and even to trace the introduction of many trees, plants, and animals from the ſame quarter into the more weſtern parts.

The rite of ſacrifice prevailed in the eaſtern Aſia, and from thence was brought into the weſtern, and into Egypt, Greece, and Rome. The law of matrimony, inſtituted at firſt in the Eaſt, ſpread itſelf afterwards all over the Weſt; and if it was the cuſtom in Perſia and Egypt, and in ſome parts of Greece, for a brother to marry a ſiſter, it is very natural to ſuppoſe, that even this practice might be taken up from what neceſſarily paſſed under the firſt race of men. The rite of circumciſion deſcended from Abraham into Egypt and Arabia. Polytheiſm or idolatry was a very ancient corruption of the eaſtern Aſiatics, being at leaſt as old as Serug; and we find it ſpread over Aſia Minor, Egypt, and Greece, though in different modes. As to Greece, it ſeems firſt to have come into Crete, where Jupiter, whoſe age is ſufficiently aſcertained, both lived and reigned. The inſtitution of the ſabbath, or the reſt of one day in ſeven, is as old as the creation, and accompanied Noah into the ark; and the Greeks, and other ancients, though more weſtern nations, had it amongſt them. Thus again, we have very early accounts in ſcripture of the practice of hunting, which yet in appearance did not arrive in Greece till the time of Diana, a daughter of Jupiter. The Aſiatics had corn of every kind; and the time is in a manner known when it was firſt brought into Greece, being introduced by Ceres, who taught Triptolemus the method of its cultivation. The Greeks before then lived upon fruits, acorns, plants, and roots. The Aſiatics alſo had the vine, which Bacchus meeting with in his excurſions eaſtward, he brought into Europe, and for his ſervice in that reſpect, had a place aſſigned him amongſt the Gods, as the caſe had been before with Diana and Ceres. The olive, we muſt ſuppoſe, was unknown in Europe till the building of Athens, as likewiſe was the horſe; when, on occaſion of the fabulous conteſt between Minerva and Neptune about the patronage of that city, ſhe produced the olive, and he the horſe; whereas both had been long known before in the eaſtern parts of the world. The art of ſhip-building was begun

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by Noah in the fabrication of the ark, and was revived from thence in the maritime parts of Phœnicia, from whence it was brought, perhaps by Tiphys, into Greece, and thence travelled weſtward, if it had not done ſo before by means of the Phœnicians. Muſic was not known in Greece till the time of Apollo, Mercury, and Pan, and yet was in Aſia an antediluvian ſcience. The ſame may be ſaid of the uſe of metals, which ſeem not to have been manufactured in Greece till the age of Vulcan, ſon of Jupiter. Alphabetical letters, it is well known, were brought into Greece by Cadmus the Phœnician. The cock, that moſt uſeful creature, and conſequently the hen, came originally into Greece from Perſia, as appears from Ariſtophanes, and other authors. The pheaſant takes its name from the river Phaſis in Aſia, which plainly ſhews the country from whence the Greeks and Romans received this fowl. The turkey, an eaſtern bird, as the name itſelf ſhews, did not get into England till the reign of king Henry VIII. The French call this fowl Coq d' Inde, or *the Indian cock*, which ſhews, that it was not known amongſt them till after the diſcovery of the Indies. Cherries, as Pliny tells us, were brought from Pontus into Italy by Lucullus. Pliny alſo has traced the ſeveral ſtages of the plane-tree from Syria through the Grecian iſlands, till it arrived in Italy, and paſſed thence to the weſtern parts of Gaul. All theſe particulars tend to ſhew, that the progreſs of things, has, in fact, been from eaſt to weſt, and that the emigrants for peopling the weſtern parts had of courſe brought their arts and ſciences, inventions, fruits, animals, vegetables, religion, and languages, in part along with them; and what they had not at firſt brought, they afterwards endeavoured, if poſſible, to ſupply themſelves with.

CHAP.

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CHAP. II.

Of AFRICA.

SECT. I.

Of Africa in general.

Situation and boundaries of Africa.

AFRICA, one of the four principal parts of the world, lies ſouth of Europe, and weſt of Aſia, and is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, which parts it from the former; and on the eaſt by the Red Sea, which ſeparates it from the latter, to which it only joins by that ſmall iſthmus, or neck of land, which cuts off the communication between theſe two ſeas, and is commonly known by the name of Suez. On the ſouth and weſt, it is ſurrounded with the main ocean, ſo that it may be properly ſtiled a vaſt over-grown peninſula, joined only to the continent of Aſia by the iſthmus abovementioned.

Extent.

It extends a prodigious way, not only on each ſide of the equator, but of the tropics likewiſe, the ſouthern verge of it reaching quite to the 35th degree of ſouth, and the northern almoſt to the 37th of north latitude; whereby its utmoſt extent, from north to ſouth, is almoſt ſeventy-two degrees, or about four thouſand three hundred and twenty miles. From eaſt to weſt it reaches ſtill farther, viz. from ſeventeen weſt to ſixty eaſt, or ſeventy-ſeven degrees of longitude, that is, four thouſand ſix hundred and twenty miles.

Figure.

It is of a triangular or pyramidical figure, the baſe being the northern part of it, which runs along the ſhores of the Mediterranean, and the point or top of the pyramid the Cape of Good Hope.

Situation for commerce.

Its ſituation for commerce is certainly beyond any of the other quarters of the world. It ſtands, as it were, in the center between the other three, and has thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Aſia, and America, than any other quarter has with the reſt; for it lies oppoſite Europe in the Mediterranean, almoſt one thouſand miles in a line eaſt and weſt, from beyond Tripoli to Cape Spartel at the ſtreights mouth; the diſtance ſeldom one hundred miles, no where one hundred leagues, and often not twenty leagues. It is oppoſite Aſia all the length of the Red Sea, north and ſouth; the diſtance ſometimes not being above five leagues, ſeldom

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fifty; and it fronts all the southern coast of Asia, viz. the coasts of Cilicia, and that of India, though at a greater distance, yet much nearer than any other country. It is also wonderfully accommodated for commerce, by the interposition of islands from Madagascar to Malabar; and more particularly by means of the alternate trade winds, which render the navigation safe, easy, and constant. Lastly, it lies opposite to America, about the distance of five hundred to seven hundred leagues, including the islands, by a coast of above two thousand miles; whereas America no where joins Europe or Asia, except where it may be a terra incognita, the former under a distance of one thousand leagues, the latter under that of two thousand five hundred.

Other advantages by rivers; fertility of the soil, &c.

It is furnished with the greatest and most convenient navigable rivers, and, perhaps, with as many of them, as any other of the chief parts of the world; such are the Nile and Nubia on the north shore, running into the Mediterranean Sea; the Niger, or Rio Grand, running into the Atlantic Ocean, on the west side of Africa; the Congo, the Zaïri, and the Loango, three rivers of prodigious extent, south of the line, which empty themselves into the Ethiopic Ocean on the same west side, but beyond the Gold Coast: also the Natal, the Prio St. Esprit, the Melinda, and the Mozambo, all rivers of a very great length and breadth, which empty themselves into the Indian Ocean on the east side of Africa. Besides these, there are innumerable others, which, though not equal to them, are yet very noble streams, fitted for navigation and commerce; and was this country blessed with a people qualified for trade and business, they might become the medium of an endless commercial correspondence. It is, indeed, populous to a greater degree than commonly thought; the soil fruitful, and the air salubrious: and, if once a turn for industry and the arts was introduced among the natives, a greater quantity of the European produce and manufactures might be exported thither, than to any other country in the whole world. And as, in general, they stand in great need of European commodities, so they have the most valuable returns to make for them. This is not the state of trade between Europe and Asia: Europe calls for a vast variety of goods from Asia, and Asia calls for more money than any thing else from Europe: yet there seems to be a kind of peculiarity in this trade, to the infinite advantage, particularly of the Indian and Chinese commerce, and the great disadvantage of most, if not all, the nations

State of the African and Asiatic trade.

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of Europe: for the trade of Aſia drains the whole weſtern world of their ready money, in return for their mere products and manufactures. However, in the main, this is not ſuch a diſadvantage to Europe as ſome are inclined to think; and it need only be obſerved, that ſome great politicians have looked upon gold and ſilver in no other light than as commodities, and ought to be as freely exported and imported, except in our own coin, as any other whatſoever: and, if Europe at preſent contained all the gold and ſilver that Africa and America have ever produced, it is to be queſtioned, whether ſhe might be ſaid to be ever the richer, by reaſon that gold and ſilver would then be as was ſaid of Solomon's time, as plenty as the ſtones in the ſtreets, and therefore of little or no value. So that a commerce which takes off from the Europeans ſome proportion of its ſilver, may be as neceſſary as any other, to keep its value equally with that of gold, the latter always finding its value according to the quantity of the former.

Valuable products of Africa.

But to return to the valuable returns the Africans have to make, which the Europeans experience, from the ſhare of traffic they carry on with them at preſent: to what a degree they abound in gold, we have not only the teſtimony of the Portugueſe, the Dutch, and the French, as well as the Engliſh, who have ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, but the vouchers of the moſt authentic hiſtorians. There is no country in the world, ſays Leo Africanus, richer in gold and ſilver than ſome kingdoms in Africa, as thoſe of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Butua, Quiticui, Monomotapa, Cafati, and Mehenemugi. By means of ſettlements of ſtrength on the continent of Africa, the Europeans might, by the exchange of their commodities, draw into their hands all the gold of thoſe countries. And here is a prodigious number of elephants, which would not only facilitate the inland intercourſes of commerce, but alſo afford a very beneficial branch of traffic, in the teeth of theſe valuable animals. In the ſame hiſtorian are numberleſs paſſages relating to thoſe rich mines, and ſhewing how eaſy it would be for the Europeans to carry on a very extenſive traffic with that part of the globe. This account of the great treaſures of Africa is confirmed likewiſe by the Nubian geographer, who ſays, that the king of Guinea, the greateſt city in all the countries of Negroland, has a maſs of gold of thirty pounds weight, as it was naturally produced in the mines; which is completely pure, tough, and malleable, without having been ſmelted by the ordinary arts of refining that metal from

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from its native ore. Father Labat has deſcended to a very minute ſpecification of a great variety of rich mines, which, he ſays, are very ſhamefully worked by the Negroes, by reaſon of their being totally ignorant of the nature of mining; nor have they ever yet come to the main vein of any of their mines. Copper is the next valuable ore found in this part of the world. The quantity of it is not fully ſearched into, though there is good reaſon to believe it is ſo exceeding great, that it is commonly ſaid amongſt them, that the mountains which we call Atlas are all copper. On the northern coaſts they have ſuch plenty of corn, that their fields, though but very meanly cultivated, for want of a knowlege in agriculture, yield them a hundred-fold increaſe. Gums, ivory, wax, civet, oſtrich-feathers, are in ſuch quantities, that any expence of them can ſcarce ever be miſſed: and, in theſe warm climates, the country, beſides what nature has of herſelf diſſeminated, is, and muſt be capable of improvement, in all the niceſt and moſt eſtimable productions, which the well-cultivated world ſupplies us with, from other places in the ſame latitude. It cannot be doubted but the fruitful rich lands every where to be found upon the coaſts, and within the country, upon the banks of the rivers near the Gold Coaſt and the Slave Coaſt, would produce all the richeſt articles of the Eaſt and Weſt India commerce. The ſpices of Banda, Ternate, and Amboyna, might be produced on the rich and fruitful ſhores of Melinda, on the eaſt ſide, or of the Slave Coaſt on the weſt ſide of Africa; and that as eaſily, and to as great advantage, as where they are now produced; the latitude being the ſame, and the ſoil not unlike. The cinnamon of Ceylon, the tea of China and Japan, and the coffee of Mocha, would all three be produced on the ſame coaſt, from the Rio de St. Eſprit, and ſouthward to the river Natale; a temperate, fertile, healthy, and manageable ſoil. It has been affirmed, that the ſugars of Barbadoes and Jamaica, as alſo the ginger, cotton, rice, pepper, or pimento, with the cocoa, the indigo, and every other plant which comes from theſe iſlands, would be as eaſily produced in Africa, and the crops equally profitable and plentiful, if ſupported by the ſame induſtry as in America: and we are aſſured, that ginger, cotton, and indigo, have been attempted by the Engliſh factories on the Gold Coaſt of Africa, where they have thriven to admiration. Upon the foundation of theſe facts, nothing ſeems wanting to render Africa equal by nature, if not in many reſpects ſuperior to any of the other parts

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parts of the world: for though the middle of it, lying between the tropics in the torrid zone, and under the line, is exceeding hot, yet even in the hotteſt part it is habitable and inhabited; and the people abound in plenty, have cattle, corn, cooling fruits, ſhades, and rivers, and live very agreeably and healthy: as, for inſtance, in the iſland of St. Thomas, under the very line; alſo on the Gold Coaſt, and in the kingdom of Benin and Angola on the weſt ſhore; and in Ethiopia, Melinda, the coaſt of Zanguebar, and ſeveral of the more intemperate places on the eaſtern ſhore. But making allowance for ſome of the inland countries remote from the ſea, which, we are told, are without water, and therefore deſert; yet are they not equal to the uninhabited waſtes of Europe, Aſia, and America. Notwithſtanding this, Africa, in the reſpect of feeling no cold, has an advantage over the other parts of the world: the moſt northerly latitude is about 37 deg. and the moſt ſoutherly about 35 deg. ſo that the far larger part enjoys the fineſt and moſt temperate climate. It is, however, melancholy to obſerve, that a country which has near ten thouſand miles of ſea-coaſt, and noble, large, deep rivers, ſhould yet have no navigation; ſtreams penetrating into the very center of the country, but of no benefit to it; innumerable people, without knowlege of each other, correſpondence, or commerce. At the entrance of theſe rivers into the ſea are the moſt excellent harbours, prodigious in number, deep, ſafe, and calm, covered from the wind, and capable of being made ſecure by fortifications; but no ſhipping, no trade, no merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandizes. In ſhort, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, ſtored with an inexhauſtible treaſure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing ſo many things delightful, as well as convenient within itſelf, ſeems utterly neglected by thoſe who are civilized themſelves, and its own inhabitants are quite unſolicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them. What it affords, in its preſent rude unimproved ſtate, is ſolely given up to the gain of others, as if not only the people were to be ſold for ſlaves to their fellow creatures, but the whole country was captive, and produced its treaſures merely for the uſe and benefit of the reſt of the world, and not for their own.

Reflections on the African ſlave-trade.

Whether, inſtead of making ſlaves of theſe people, it would not rather become ſuch nations that aſſume to themſelves the name and character of Chriſtians, to give them a reliſh for the bleſſings of life, by extending traffic into their

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their country in the largeſt degree it will admit of, and introducing among them the more civilized arts and cuſtoms, may be ſubmitted to conſideration. The Dutch, by recommending their dreſs, and introducing their cuſtoms in the Spice Iſlands, have wonderfully humanized the inhabitants, who were as ſtrange in their manners as the Negroes. But it is to be feared, that while the ſlave-trade with theſe people continues to be the great object of the Europeans, it will ever ſpirit up wars and hoſtilities among the Negro princes and chiefs, for the ſake of making captives of each other for ſale. This, therefore, will ever obſtruct the civilizing theſe people, and extending their trade into the bowels of Africa, which, by the contrary means, might be eaſily practicable. The obtaining a competent number of ſervants to work, as the Negroes at preſent do, in the colonies belonging to the ſeveral European potentates, who have ſettlements in America, does not ſeem at all impracticable. Europe in general affords numberleſs poor and diſtreſſed objects for that purpoſe; and if theſe were not over-worked, as the Negroes are in ſome of the American colonies, the Europeans would make as good ſervants for the planters as the blacks do; and, if alſo all the Europeans were upon a level in regard to the price of labour in their colonies, they would all, very probably, find their account in laying abſolutely aſide the ſlave-trade, and cultivating a fair, friendly, humane, and civilized commerce with the Africans.

Ancient ſtate of Africa.

Africa once contained ſeveral kingdoms and ſtates, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the moſt extenſive commerce. Then almoſt all the northern parts of Africa were full of people, from the Red Sea to the Atlantic Ocean; the kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia were much celebrated, and the rich and powerful ſtate of Carthage extended her commerce to every part of the then known world: even the Britiſh ſhores were viſited by her fleets, till Juba, king of Mauritania, and tributary to Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, by the aſſiſtance of the Mauritanians, ſubdued Carthage, and made all the kingdoms and ſtates in Africa ſubject to them. After this, the natives, conſtantly plundered, and conſequently impoveriſhed, by the governors ſent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might ſerve for their ſubſiſtence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, a barbarous northern people, who contributed ſtill more to the deſtruction

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ſtruction of arts and ſciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a ſudden conqueſt of all the coaſts of Egypt and Barbary in the ſeventh century: theſe were afterwards ſucceeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mohammedan religion, whoſe profeſſors carry deſolation with them wherever they come, the ruin of that once flouriſhing part of the world was thereby completed.

Three different people inhabit this continent, namely, Pagans, Mohammedans, and Chriſtians. The firſt are the moſt numerous, poſſeſſing the greateſt part of the country from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope, and theſe are generally black. The Mohammedans, who are of a tawny complexion, poſſeſs almoſt all the northern ſhores of Africa. The people of Abyſſynia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Chriſtians, but retain abundance of Pagan and Jewiſh rites: there are ſome other Chriſtians upon the ſea-coaſts, on almoſt every ſide of Africa; but the number is ſmall, compared with that of the Pagans or Mohammedans. There are alſo ſome Jews on the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is yet poſſeſſed of. But it is remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets, and a more extended commerce, than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that ſtate flouriſhed, the preſent inhabitants have ſcarce any merchant ſhips belonging to them, and no other ſhips of force than what Salee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, fit out for piracy, and theſe but few and ſmall, their whole ſtrength not being able to reſiſt a ſquadron of European men of war.

Diſagreement about the diviſion of Africa.

There are ſcarce any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned, that agree in the modern diviſion of Africa; and for this very reaſon, that ſcarce any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country, and conſequently we muſt be content to acknowlege our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of ſeveral of the midland nations. Theſe may ſtill be reckoned among the unknown and undiſcovered parts of the world; but, according to the beſt accounts and conjectures, Africa may be commodiouſly divided into ten parts, conſiſting of, 1. Egypt. 2. Ethiopia Superior. 3. Zanguebar, with Adel; all which lie on the eaſt of Africa. 4. Monœmugi, Monomotapa, and Caffraria, called by ſome the Lower Ethiopia, which lie on the ſouth. 5. Guinea, on the ſouth-weſt. 6. Nigritia,

Commodiouſly divided into ten parts.

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6. Nigritia, or Negroland, in the middle of Africa, extending almoſt quite through the country from eaſt to weſt, on both ſides of the great river Niger. 7. Zaara, or the deſart to the northward of Nigritia. 8. Biledulgerid, the ancient Numidia, to the northward of Zaara. 9. The empire of Fez and Morocco, containing the north-weſt part of Africa. 10. The coaſt of Barbary, on the north, containing the countries of Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Barca.

SECT. II.

Of Egypt.

Name of Egypt.

EGYPT is ſuppoſed to derive its name from Egyptus, the brother of Danaus, once ſovereign of this country. The Hebrews and Arabs called it Miſraim, from the ſon of Cham, and grandſon of Noah, of that name; and it has alſo been known by the name of Coptus, the capital city of Upper Egypt, from whence the natives are called Cophtis, as the Chriſtians of Egypt are at this day; and, though not the moſt numerous, are looked upon to be the true deſcendents of the ancient Egyptians. The Turks call this country El Kebit, which ſignifies *one that is overflowed.*

Boundaries, ſituation, and extent.

Egypt is ſituated on the north-eaſt part of Africa, being bounded by the Mediterranean Sea on the north; by the Red Sea, and the iſthmus of Suez, which divide it from Aſia, towards the eaſt; by the empire of Abyſſinia and Nubia towards the ſouth; and by the deſart of Barca towards the weſt. It extends from the 21ſt deg. of north latitude to the 31ſt, and a few minutes beyond; and conſequently muſt be about ſix hundred miles in length from ſouth to north; but the breadth in many places does not ſeem to be near two hundred.

Air, waters, and fertility.

The air of this country is not healthful, the ſituation being very low; the mud, which covers the beſt part of it after the overflowing of the Nile, ſending up a noiſome vapour. The ſandy deſarts alſo, which encompaſs Egypt on three ſides, render it exceſſive hot. Nor are there more than two ſprings in the whole country to refreſh the parched inhabitants; ſo that they ſeem to be under a neceſſity of building their towns on the banks of the Nile. Accordingly, moſt of them ſtand near the river upon riſing ground, ſo made by art or nature; and when the river overflows, they appear like ſo many iſlands, which have

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have a communication with each other only by boats. It seldom rains in summer; but in the winter, modern travellers assure us, it rains plentifully sometimes, especially in the Lower Egypt. However, the fertility of the country, especially in corn, is not owing to these rains, but to the course and overflowings of the river Nile. As to its swelling, geographers inform us, that it corresponds exactly with the rainy seasons between the tropics. They commence in the mountains about the beginning of May, and the water of the Nile begins to swell about the middle of it; so that there are fifteen days allowed by nature for the course of the water from the latitude of Ethiopia to that of Egypt, which is esteemed a pretty exact allowance; the distance being from 13 or 15 deg. to the latitude of 28 and 30 deg. which may very well correspond with the time. As to the continuance of the inundation, this is said to be just the same, keeping time with the rains; for as it is in several parts of Africa, so it is in Ethiopia, the rains abate at the beginning of September, and cease by the beginning of October. Thus the inundation answers exactly fifteen days, the same space as before. After the rains begin to abate in Ethiopia, the inundation of the river begins to abate in Egypt; and ten days after the rains cease in Ethiopia, the Nile is quite reduced to its ancient channel in Egypt. This being the case, there can be no room any longer to doubt of the rains in Ethiopia being the cause of this inundation. In regard to the height to which the waters rise, some authors give an account of the swell being about forty feet in height perpendicularly; which, though it be extraordinary to imagine, and must, in our imagination, as before observed, place all the towns on a hilly situation, or suppose them to be laid under water; yet, since so many affirm it for truth, we must assent to what they say. The effects of this inundation are fructifying the earth, not only moistening it instead of rain, but enriching the land with the fattening slimy substance, which it receives from the richness of the soil in Ethiopia, from whence it comes. This is said to be peculiar to the river Nile, as the country of Ethiopia is rich and fruitful beyond all that part of Africa. It is true, that the Niger, the Congo, and several other rivers on the coast of Africa, which overflow the country, render it fruitful, and enrich the soil as well as the Nile does, but none in so extraordinary a manner.

Inundations of the Nile.

Egypt is commonly divided into Lower, Middle, and Upper.

Division of Egypt.

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Lower Egypt.

Lower Egypt, or Egypt properly ſo called, is ſo ſtyled on account of its ſituation, according to the courſe of the Nile, it being the laſt of the three through which that river runs, and from which it diſcharges itſelf into the ſea. It is bounded on the ſouth by Middle Egypt, on the north by the ſea, on the weſt by the deſert of Barca, and on the eaſt by the iſthmus of Suez. This country is very fertile, and ſo well improved, that it abounds with paſture grounds, corn, wine, rice, dates, ſenna, caſſia, baulm, medicinal drugs, plants, and ſome other valuable articles. Its principal towns are,

Principal towns.

Buſiris, an ancient city, but now dwindled into a village called Aboaſar. Alexandria, by the Turks called Scanderic, is ſituate at the mouth of the Canopean branch of the Nile, where it forms a noble ſpacious haven, in form of a creſcent; and which, though not very ſafe, is much frequented. This city boaſts of its antiquity, having been built by Alexander the Great after the taking of Tyre, that he might preſerve the trade between India and Europe, which he found, to his great diſſatisfaction, was ruined by the deſtruction of Tyre; ſo great a value was ſet upon the Eaſt India trade even in thoſe days. This trade from India was carried on for many ages with infinite advantage by the Tyrians; and Alexander, who was ill adviſed in extirpating the Phœnician merchants, to make the world amends erected this city, making it a free port, and giving it his own name. But though he exerted his utmoſt ſagacity and authority to bring the Indian merchants to ſettle there, and make it the ſtaple of their manufactures, a great part of their commerce took another turn, and paſſing from India by the river Oxus, and the city of Samarcand into the Caſpian Sea, and thence by land to Trapezond, from whence it croſſed the Euxine Sea, and paſſing other neighbouring ſeas, at length centered in the city of Corinth, which, by that means, became a great and opulent city. Alexander, however, ſo far prevailed, that a great part of the trade from India came this way, particularly ſuch of it as was carried on at the coaſt of Malabar, and in the Perſian Gulf, which coming up the Red Sea, landed goods at Elam, now Suez, and they were thence carried over land to the Nile, and then again by water to Alexandria. That this city, in the moſt flouriſhing ſtate of its commerce, was a large, opulent, ſtrong, and magnificent city, is certain; and that, ſince the decay of its trade, it is now little more than the ſkeleton of what it has been, is not leſs true. Its conflagration by

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by the Saracens, indeed, effected its present ruinous state, in comparison to what it was in its splendor. It has still some trade, and is populous, but not considerable. Rosetto also, and Damietta, and even Grand Cairo, have lost the fund of their wealth and glory from the time that the Portuguese, unhappily for them, found the way to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.

The ground Alexandria stands upon is so extremely low, that it can scarce be discerned by mariners till they are just upon it, which was probably the occasion of erecting that famous pharos, or high watch tower, so frequently mentioned in history for a sea-mark. In the room of it there is now built a castle, which serves for the same purpose. The old town of Alexandria stretched from east to west, and was about seven miles in circumference, but is now a heap of ruins, scarce any thing being left standing, except one long street, indifferently built, with some houses facing the harbour, and a part of the walls, which are very magnificent, having great square towers at about two hundred paces distant from each other, and a little tower between them. It was built upon arches, supported by marble pillars, and under every house were cisterns, to receive the waters of the Nile, which were conveyed thither by aqueducts. Among the ruins are several fine pillars of porphyry and granate, with hieroglyphics upon them. But the finest piece of antiquity still left standing, is, Pompey's pillar, about two hundred paces from the town, erected by Julius Cæsar, in memory of his victory over that great man, who fled thither from the battle of Pharsalia, and was murdered on the Egyptian coast.

Pompey's pillar.

The body of the pillar is one entire piece of granite marble, or some composition as durable and beautiful as marble. The height of it is seventy feet, and the circumference twenty-five, with a noble capital and base; on which are several hieroglyphics. It is amazing how such a prodigious stone could be brought here, and as difficult to conceive with what kind of engine it was raised. Some imagine it was made or cast upon the place, and this has occasioned it to be suggested, that the ancients had an art of casting stone, and of imitating, or rather excelling, the most beautiful pieces of natural marble, particularly the Egyptians; but this is much doubted by the learned.

The next considerable place to Alexandria is Rosetto, a healthy, pleasant, and populous city, situate on a branch of the Nile. The chief business of the inhabitants is

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carrying the European merchandizes, which are brought hither from Alexandria, to Cairo in boats. For this purpose, the Europeans have their vice-consuls and factors to expedite business, and all letters and bills brought from Alexandria. Letters of consequence are conveyed by land across the desart by foot-messengers directly to Cairo.

About a hundred miles eastward of Rosetto, stands the city of Damietta, or Pelusium, on one of the eastern branches of the Nile, about ten miles from the mouth of it. It is reckoned one of the keys of Egypt; is large, though ill built, and has about twenty-five thousand inhabitants, without reckoning a good, large, and populous town, on the other side of the river, chiefly inhabited by sailors and fishermen, and a much greater number of strangers from all parts, on account of traffic, all which have contributed not a little to make it opulent and considerable. The towns and villages between this city and Cairo lie pretty thick, and a good number of the inhabitants are employed, some in hatching great multitudes of eggs in ovens, and rearing the chickens; and others in making great quantities of sal ammoniac. This salt is procured from the soot which arises from the burnt dung of animals that feed only on vegetables; but the dung of these animals is only fit to burn for sal ammoniac during the four first months of the year, when they feed on fresh spring grass, which, in Egypt, is a kind of trefoil, or clover; for when they feed only on dry meat it will not do. The dung of oxen, buffaloes, sheep, goats, horses, and apes, at the proper time, is as fit as the dung of camels for this purpose: it is said that even human dung is equal to any other. The soot arising from the burnt dung is put into glass vessels, and these vessels into an oven or kiln, which is heated by degrees, and at last, urged with a very strong fire for three successive nights and days; the smoke first shews itself, and in a short time after, the salt appears adhering to the glasses, and, by degrees, covers the whole opening. The glasses are then broken, and the salt taken out in the same state and form in which it is sent to Europe.

Middle Egypt. Middle Egypt is situate between the Upper and Lower, having the former on the south, and the latter on the north, the Red Sea on the east, and the desart of Barca on the west. At present it is chiefly known by the names of Bakeirah and Benesor. It is divided in two by the Nile, on the banks of which the soil is fruitful; but more sandy and barren the farther the land runs from it.

Cairo,

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Cairo, the capital of Egypt, and by far the largeſt and moſt populous in the whole kingdom, is pleaſantly ſituated on the Nile. It appears from the great number of ſquares, caravanſeras, bazars, and other ſuch public buildings, to have been a place of extraordinary commerce, now decayed, ſince the trade to the Eaſt Indies by the way of the Cape of Good Hope; yet it ſtill is famed for ſome manufactures, eſpecially that of Turkey carpets, and a good trade by means of the caravans. The beglerbeg, or vice-roy of the whole kingdom, reſides here in the caſtle, which ſtands on the top of a hill in the ſouth-quarter of the city, and commands a noble proſpect of it and the environs. It is two or three miles in circumference, and appears like another city. The walls are high and thick, with towers after the ancient way of fortification; and it is ſaid, that there are ſeveral ſubterraneous vaults or paſſages, leading from them to diſtant towns. But what travellers ſeem to be the moſt taken with here, is a well two hundred and eighty feet deep, which has obtained the name of Joſeph's well. This and another are the only ſprings in the kingdom of Egypt. There are alſo ſhewn, in the ruins of a noble building, which is pretended to be Joſeph's hall, where he ſat in judgment, thirty fine pillars of Theban marble, with part of the roof overlaid with gold and azure.

Cairo.

Caſtle of Cairo.

Between three and four leagues to the weſtward of Cairo, ſtand thoſe three vaſt pyramids ſo juſtly the admiration of all that view them. That which has ſuffered leaſt by the injuries of time, is ſituated on the top of a rock, in the ſandy deſart of Lybia, about a quarter of a mile to the weſt of the plains of Egypt, above which the rock riſes upwards of a hundred feet, with an eaſy aſcent. Each ſide of this pyramid, at the baſe, is ſix hundred and ninety-three feet, according to the Engliſh ſtandard; its perpendicular height is four hundred and ninety-nine feet; but if taken as the pyramid aſcends, inclining, then the height is equal to the breadth of the baſe, viz. ſix hundred and ninety-three feet. The whole area of the baſe contains four hundred and eighty thouſand two hundred and forty-nine ſquare feet, or eleven acres of ground, and one thouſand and eighty-nine of forty-three thouſand five hundred and ſixty parts of an acre. This pyramid is aſcended on the outſide by ſteps; the breadth and depth of every ſtep is one entire ſtone, and many of them thirty feet in length, and the number of ſteps from the bottom to the top is two hundred and ſeven. On the north ſide

Pyramids of Egypt.

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of this pyramid, going thirty-eight feet up an artificial bank of earth, there is a narrow, ſquare paſſage, leading into the pyramid, about three feet and a half high, and three feet and a quarter broad: this paſſage is very ſteep, and runs downwards ninety-two feet and a half; the ſmoothneſs and evenneſs of the work, and the cloſe knitting of the joints, ſhew it to have been the labour of ſome exquiſite hand: the curious traveller having paſſed, with lighted torches, through this ſtreight, which, towards the end grows ſo narrow, that he is forced to creep upon his belly, comes into a place ſomewhat larger; but nothing worth deſcription is obſerved in it, except the monſtrous bats, ſaid to exceed a foot in lengh, by which it is inhabited. The length of this obſcure broken place contains eighty-nine feet, the breadth unequal, ſuppoſed to have been dug for the diſcovery of ſome hidden treaſure. On the left, adjoining the narrow entrance firſt paſſed, a ſtone eight or nine feet high muſt be climbed up, to enter upon the lower end of the firſt gallery, of which the pavement riſes gently, and conſiſts of ſmooth poliſhed marble, of a white and alabaſter colour, being about five feet in height, and as many in breadth. This gallery contains in length one hundred and ten feet; and at the end begins a ſecond gallery, a very ſtately piece of work, not inferior in materials or wormanſhip to the moſt magnificent buildings. The length of this gallery is one hundred and twenty-four feet, and if we conſider the narrow entrance at the mouth of the pyramid, by which the firſt deſcent is made, and the length of the firſt and ſecond galleries, by which the aſcent is again in one continued line, and leading to the middle of the pyramid, we may eaſily apprehend the reaſon of that ſtrange echo of four or five voices, mentioned by Plutarch, or rather of a long continued ſound, which is heard on diſcharging a muſket at the entrance; for the ſound being ſhut in, and conveyed in thoſe cloſe ſmooth paſſages, as in ſo many pipes or tubes, finding no iſſue out, makes a repercuſſion upon itſelf, and cauſes a confuſed noiſe and circulation of the air, which by degrees vaniſhes as the motion ceaſes. But to return: this ſecond gallery is paved and lined with white poliſhed marble, cut in vaſt ſquares or tables: the roof is of the ſame materials; and the junctures of the ſtones are ſo cloſe and exact, that they are ſcarce preceptible. The height of this gallery is twenty-ſix feet, and the breadth ſix; and there are benches on each ſide of poliſhed ſtone. Paſſing from the ſecond gallery, through a ſmall ſquare hole

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hole, into ſome cloſets or little chambers, lined with Thebaic marble, there is an entrance to a very noble hall, or chamber, which ſtands in the centre of the pyramid, equidiſtant from all the ſides, and almoſt in the midſt between the baſe and the top. The floor, ſides, and roof of this room, are all of exquiſite tables of Thebaic marble. From the top to the bottom of it there are but ſix ranges of ſtone; and the ſtones which cover it are of a ſtupendous length, like ſo many huge beams lying flat, and traverſing the room, and nine of theſe form the roof. The length of this hall is ſomewhat more than thirty-four Engliſh feet, the breadth ſeventeen, and the height nineteen and a half. There ſtands a tomb in it, ſuppoſed to be that of Cheops, or Chemnis, king of Egypt, the founder of the pyramid. This tomb is one entire piece of marble made hollow; it is uncovered at the top, and ſounds like a bell on being ſtruck. There are no ſigns of any corpſe having been laid in it. The hollow part is little more than ſix feet in length, and two in depth and breadth; from which dimenſions it has been obſerved, as well as from the embalmed bodies ſeen in Egypt, that there is no decay in nature, but than the men of this age are of the ſame ſtature they were three thouſand years ago.

Second pyramid.

In paſſing from the firſt pyramid to the ſecond, are ſeen the ruins of a pile of building, all of ſquare poliſhed ſtone, ſuppoſed to be the habitation of the prieſts. The ſtones of this pyramid are white, and not near ſo large as thoſe of the former, nor do the ſides riſe by degrees, or ſteps, like the other, but are all plain and ſmooth. The whole fabric, except on the ſouth, is very entire and free from any deformed ruptures or breaches; and the dimenſions, both as to the height and breadth, are equal to the firſt; but no entrance has been yet diſcovered into it, nor is it known whether there be any apartments within, though it is highly probable there are, this being deſigned for the ſepulchre of Cephren, the brother of Cheops, another Egyptian king. This pyramid has, on the north and weſt ſides, two very ſtately buildings, thirty feet in depth, and fourteen hundred in length, hewn out of the ſolid rock: theſe, it is ſuppoſed, were deſigned for lodging the prieſts, but have no other entrance into them than ſuch ſquare openings hewn out of the rock, of the ſame bigneſs with thoſe deſcribed in the firſt pyramid, and within are ſquare chambers arched and made out of the rock.

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Third pyramid. The third pyramid ſtands a furlong diſtant from the ſecond, upon a riſing of the rock, which makes it ſeem equal to the former at a diſtance. It ſeems to be entirely built of a clear white ſtone, ſomething better and brighter than that of the other two. Each ſide of the baſe is ſomewhat more than three hundred feet, and the height the ſame. There are ſeveral other pyramids diſperſed about the Lybian deſert, to the amount of twenty, but moſt of them much inferior in bulk to any of theſe three. One, which ſtands twenty miles ſouth and by weſt of thoſe above deſcribed, is of the ſame dimenſions with the firſt, with ſteps or degrees on the outſide, but more decayed. It has alſo an entrance on the north-ſide, but blocked up, ſo that there is no getting in to ſee the apartments.

Built probably by the Iſraelites. Theſe pyramids are ſuppoſed by many of the learned, to have been built by the Iſraelites, which is confirmed by Joſephus, who ſays, that when time had extinguiſhed the memory of the benefits of Joſeph, and the kingdom was transferred to another family, they uſed the Iſraelites with great rigour, waſting them by ſeveral labours. It is very probable, the kings of Egypt employed them in theſe ſtupendous works, more on a political account than for any oſtentation of power and grandeur. It ſeemed expedient to keep a mutinous people in action, who, upon the leaſt reſpite from their labours, were ready to break out into rebellion; and, as it appears at the time of their leaving Egypt, there were no leſs than ſix hundred thouſand of them, beſides women and children, there cannot be a proper epoch aſſigned for erecting theſe ſtructures than when they dwelt in this kingdom.

Occaſion of erecting them. The general opinion is, that theſe pyramids were erected for ſepulchral monuments, and in confirmation of it, Ebn Abd Alhokm, the Arabian, relates, that Almamon, the caliph of Babylon, when he cauſed the largeſt pyramid to be opened, between eight and nine hundred years ſince, found in it towards the top, a chamber with a hollow ſtone, in which there was a ſtatue like a man, and within it a man, on whom was a breaſt-plate of gold ſet with jewels; upon the breaſt-plate lay a ſword of ineſtimable price, and at his head a carbuncle of the bigneſs of an egg, ſhining like the light, and upon him were written characters with a pen which no man underſtood. But there is this farther reaſon given, (which ſprung from the theology of the Egyptians, who believed that as long as the body endured, ſo long the ſoul continued with it;) that

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that they therefore kept their dead embalmed, that their ſouls might continue with them a great while, and not paſs ſuddenly into other bodies; and for the ſame reaſon, they encloſed them in the moſt durable buildings, endeavouring thereby, as much as in them lay, to render them eternal. The Egyptians, ſays Diodorus Siculus, make ſmall account of the time of this life, as being limited; but highly value that which after death is accompanied with a glorious memory of virtue. They call the houſes of the living, inns; becauſe they inhabit them but a ſhort ſpace; but the ſepulchres of the dead, eternal manſions, becauſe they continue with the gods for an infinite ſpace; therefore, in the ſtructure of their houſes they are not very ſollicitous, but think no coſt ſufficient in ſumptuouſly adorning their ſepulchres. However, though the Egyptians were of opinion, that as long as the body endured, the ſoul continued with it; yet it did not quicken or animate the body, but remained only as an attendant, or guardian, unwilling to leave her former habitation.

The reaſon why the Egyptians built their ſepulchres in the form of pyramids, was, becauſe this is the moſt permanent form of ſtructure, being neither over-preſſed by its own weight, nor ſo ſubject to the ſinking in of rain as other buildings are: or they might hereby intend to repreſent their gods; for anciently the Gentiles expreſſed them by columns faſhioned like cones, or by quadrilateral obeliſks.

Mummy pits, or catacombs.

The mummy-pits, as called by modern travellers, are in the Lybian deſarts, three or four leagues diſtant from the three great pyramids, and a little to the weſtward of the place where the city of Memphis once ſtood; theſe pits are ſquare, and built of good ſtone, or hewn out of the ſolid rock. When the people, who have the care of the mummies, have removed the ſand from the ſurface, they take up a great ſtone which covers the mouth of the pit, and let down thoſe who would view them by ropes, or a man may go down by putting his feet into the holes on the ſides; the ſhalloweſt of theſe pits are thirty-two feet deep; at the botton are ſquare openings and paſſages ten or fifteen feet long, which lead into ſquare arched rooms, in which the embalmed bodies lie, ſome of them in cheſts or coffins of wood, others in ſtone coffins, and others in coffins made only of pieces of linen cloth, gummed or glued together, which are as ſtrong as the wooden ones. With theſe mummies are uſually found the figures of birds and beaſts, and little images of ſeveral ſorts, ſome made

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made of copper, others of ſtone, and others of ſeveral ſorts of earth. The danger of entering the pyramids and mummy-pits is intimated by ſeveral travellers, on account ot the thieviſh Arabs, who watch all opportunities of plundering thoſe who come to view them.

The ſphynx. In ſpeaking of the pyramids, we ſhould not omit mentioning the coloſſus, or, at leaſt, the head of one, which ſtands near the largeſt pyramid. It is uſually called a ſphynx, the upper-part of which ſhould reſemble a woman, and the lower-part a lion. By this figure the Egyptians in their hieroglyphics repreſented a harlot; intimating, the danger of being ſmitten with a beautiful faithleſs woman, whom the fond lover would, probably, in the end, find as cruel and rapacious as a lion. Nothing more of this figure is now diſcernible but from the ſhoulders upwards, and yet it is near thirty feet in height, and ſeems to be hewn out of the ſolid rock. It is a queſtion whether there was ever any more of the figure, though Pliny, and ſome of the ancients, give it a belly, and much larger dimenſions, making it to be one hundred and two feet in compaſs; and ſome of our modern writers pretend, that there is a ſubterraneous paſſage from the firſt pyramid to the head, which is hollow, ſuggeſting, that the heathen prieſts uſed to deliver their oracles from it; but it does not ſeem well proved that there is any ſuch paſſage under ground from the pyramid to the ſphynix, or that any oracles were ever delivered from hence.

Labyrnth. Another curioſity, mentioned by ancient and modern writers, is a labyrnth near the banks of the river Nile, towards the Upper Egypt, built by king Pſamniticus I. the greateſt part of it under ground, and containing, within the compaſs of one wall, twelve palaces and a thouſand houſes; the walls, pillars, and roofs of marble, to which there was only one entrance, and ſo many intricate turnings and windings, that it was impoſſible for a ſtranger to find his way through, or get back again, if he had entered it without a guide. The marble, it is ſaid, was laid with ſo much art, that neither wood nor cement were uſed in the whole fabric.

Celebrated well. At Materea, about five miles north-eaſt of Cairo, there is a well, which with that in the caſtle of Cairo, is the only one of good water in the whole country. It is reported, that the Virgin Mary, and her huſband Joſeph, reſted here, when they fled with our Saviour from Herod, and that being very thirſty, a ſpring iſſued ſuddenly out of the earth for their relief.

The

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The province of the Higher, or Upper Egypt, anciently called Thebais, is bounded on the eaſt ſide by the Red Sea all the way, on the north by Middle Egypt, on the weſt by the deſart of Barca, and on the ſouth by Nubia and the coaſt of Abex. It is by far the leaſt cultivated and populous of all the three. Moſt of its towns, or rather villages, are very thinly inhabited. Sayd, anciently Thebes, or the city with a hundred gates, was formerly here the capital of the kingdom; but it is now inconſiderable, and has nothing to boaſt of its grandeur, but great columns of marble and porphyry, which lie half buried in the ground, and ſtatues and obeliſks of a prodigious ſize, with hieroglyphics upon them. The ſame are to be met with in moſt parts of this country; an argument that it once had very conſiderable towns, and magnificent buildings. Minio, a neat town, is famous for an earthen manufacture of water-pots, or veſſels, not only very curiouſly made, but ſaid to give an uncommon freſhneſs to the water; and, on that account, are in great requeſt all over Egypt, but eſpecially at Cairo. The Turks and Arabs make the beſt opium at the village of Aboutie, which is of note for the great quantities of black poppies that grow in and about it. This opium is thence conveyed all over Turkey and India. The inhabitants of this diviſion of Egypt are compoſed chiefly of Cophti Chriſtians and Arabs: the former are the more numerous, and have their biſhops to preſide over them, who are ſubject to the patriarch of Alexandria. *Upper Egypt.*

There ſtill remain ſome remarkable things to be related of this country, which every curious traveller who paſſes through it takes notice of. In this rank is, *Some things Egypt is remarkable for.*

The papyrus, an aquatic plant, or growing by the banks of the river Nile. According to the deſcription, Pliny, after Theophraſtus, gives us of it, its ſtalk is triangular, and of a thickneſs that may be graſped in the hand, its root crooked, and it terminates by fibrous bunches compoſed of long and weak pedicles. It has been obſerved in Egypt by Guilandinus, an author of the ſixteenth century, who has given us a learned commentary on the paſſages of Pliny where mention is made of it; and it is alſo deſcribed in Proſper Alpinus and in Lobel. The Egyptians call it berd, and they eat that part of the plant which is near the roots. A plant named papero, much reſembling the papyrus of Egypt, grows likewiſe in Sicily: it is deſcribed in Lobel's Adverſaria: Ray, and ſeveral others after him, believed it was the ſame ſpecies; however, *Papyrus.*

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however, it does not ſeem that the ancients made uſe of that of Sicily; and M. de Juſſieu thinks, they ought not to be confounded, eſpecially by reading in Strabo, that the papyrus grew only in Egypt, or in the Indies. Pliny, Guilandinus, Montfaucon, and the count de Caylus, are of this opinion. The internal parts of the rind of this plant were the only that were made into paper, and the manner of the manufacture was thus; ſtrips, or thin flakes, of every length that could be obtained, being laid upon a table, other ſtrips were placed acroſs, and paſted to them by means of water and a preſs; ſo that this paper was a texture of ſeveral ſtrips, and it even appears, that, in the time of the emperor Claudius, the Romans made paper of three lays. Pliny alſo informs us, that the ſtrips of the papyrus were left to dry in the ſun, and afterwards diſtributed according to the different qualities fit for different kinds of paper; ſcarce more than twenty ſtrips could be ſeparated from each ſtalk. The paper of the Romans never exceeded thirteen fingers breadth, and this was their fineſt and moſt beautiful, as that of Fannius. In order to be deemed perfect, it was to be thin, compact, white, and ſmooth; which is much the ſame with what we require in our rag-paper. It was ſleeked with a tooth or ſhell, and this kept it from ſoaking the ink, and made it gliſten. The Roman paper received an agglutination as well as ours, which was prepared with flour of wheat, diluted with boiling-water, on which were poured ſome drops of vinegar; or with crumbs of leavened bread diluted with boiling-water, and paſſed through a bolting-cloth. Being afterwards beat with a hammer, it was agglutinated a ſecond time, put to the preſs, and extended again with the hammer. This account of Pliny is confirmed by Caſſiodorus, who, ſpeaking of the leaves of the papyrus uſed in his time, ſays, that they were white as ſnow, and compoſed of a great number of ſmall pieces, without any junction appearing in them, which ſeems to ſuppoſe neceſſarily the uſe of ſize. The Egyptian papyrus ſeems even to be known in the time of Homer; but it was not, according to the teſtimony of Varro, till about the time of the conqueſts of Alexander, that it began to be manufactured with the perfections art always adds to nature. Paper made in this manner, with the rind of this Egyptian plant, was that which was chiefly uſed till the tenth century; when ſome perſon imagined the making of it with pounded cotton reduced into a pulp. This method, known in China ſe-

veral

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veral ages before, appeared at laſt in the empire of the Eaſt, yet without any certain knowlege of the author, or the time and place of the invention. All public acts and diplomas were written on the Egyptian paper, till the eleventh contury; and it is probable, that linen-rag paper was invented ſome time in that century, as then the Egyptian paper began to be diſuſed in the Weſt, and that of cotton in the Eaſt. However, there is no finding an exact date to this diſcovery; for, notwithſtanding the moſt diligent ſearch of the learned antiquary Montfaucon, both in France and Italy, he could never find a book, or leaf of paper, ſuch as is now uſed, before the year 1270.

Hatching chickens in ovens.

The next remarkable thing to be met with in Egypt is the hatching of chickens in ovens. The eggs are kept heated with ſo temperate a warmth, which imitates ſo exactly the natural heat of a hen, that chickens are at length formed and hatched. It has been diſputed whether this can be effected in any other country beſides Egypt, where the natural heat of the climate is thought to contibute much towards theſe productions; but M. Thevenot tells us, that the duke of Florence ſent for ſome of the Cophtis (who are the only Egyptians that follow this buſineſs) and hatched chickens in Italy in the ſame manner. Very lately ſome experiments have been made in France, for hatching chickens by the fermentation of tan (P.

Another

(P) M. Bauſſau du Bignon, the author of theſe experiments inſerted in the fourth volume of the Memoirs, preſented to the Academy of Sciences, ſays, that the beſt tan for this purpoſe is that which is uſed for the hides of oxen, that come to the French generally from Ireland. This tan muſt be procured when newly taken out of the pits, becauſe it will ſerve longer, and it muſt not be ſuffered to contract any more moiſture, being already too wet. Firſt, a pretty high and broad bed is to be made of it, in order that the veſſel, which is to ſerve as an oven for the chickens, may be on all ſides ſurrounded with three times as much tan as it meaſures in diameter. Previous to this, if the tan is too moiſt, humidity and ſmell may be diminiſhed by often ſtirring it.

In a fortnight, three weeks, or a month, at lateſt, the tan will be heated to the required degree; but if it does not grow hot in this time, by ſtill retaining too much moiſture, it muſt be ſtirred again, and as it ſhrinks in proportion to its moiſture, it muſt be ſtirred more than once, if it be much ſhrunk, and collected into a maſs.

It may be known when it has acquired a proper degree of moiſture and dryneſs if a drop

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Resurrection of human bones.

Another thing which creates admiration in the credulous traveller, as well as the superstitious natives, both Christian and Mohammedan, is the pretended annual resurrection of human bodies, some say of whole limbs, and others entire bones, in a certain burial-place near Old Cairo, on Good Friday, and the two preceding days. M. Thevenot relates, that he went to see the place on Good Friday, where he found a good many bones; but suspected they were scattered there on purpose to serve the lucrative views of some pious fraud. Discovering his opinion to some about him, he was taken to be an

drop of water cannot be squeezed out of a handful, and if scarce any moisture remains in the hand of him that squeezes. Then it usually ferments in a fortnight, and its heat is easily ascertained, by introducing a slender stick from the top to the bottom, and drawing it out immediately after, to judge of the degree of heat by feeling it.

The tan will retain its heat at thirty-two degrees during an entire month, without any other care than keeping the opening of the oven more or less shut up, and the heat will continue naturally for three months successively at the twenty-eighth degree.

As the heat increases during some time, there is no occasion to be uneasy if it is not yet at the thirty-second degree. Two or three days are required to be assured of its constancy, to fix it and dissipate the vapours and interior moisture of the vessel or oven, during which time the thirty-second degree will happen; and as the heat increases insensibly for a fortnight or three weeks, and decreases when past this term, it will be easy not to be mistaken, the covering and different accounts kept from time to time being sufficient to prevent all inconveniency.

Nothing more for re-heating is required than a second bed of tan made in a month or three weeks later than the first; and it will be ready to receive the eggs and chicks when the first appears to grow too cool. During the heat of the second, the first may be immediately stirred up, and it will afterwards yield the same service as the second, which may be so continued for three years successively.

The author adds, that it is now three years since he made these experiments with great success, and that in this manner he has brought forth and reared a great number of very fine and well-tasted chickens. He found also, by his experiments, that tan ferments for more than three years after it has been taken out of the pits; so that the curious who have tan, and use it for maintaining heat in their greenhouses, may likewise see birds produced from its warmth in the most rigorous seasons; which, no doubt must be a double pleasure to them arising from the same cause.

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atheiſt, and would have expoſed himſelf to the danger of being inſulted, had he not prudently deſiſted from undeceiving the multitude, by ſeeming to join them in opinion.

The animals which Egypt is remarkable for, are, firſt, the crocodile, formerly thought to be peculiar to this country; but there is no material difference between theſe creatures and the alligators at the mouth of the Ganges, and in other rivers of India and America. Both are known to be amphibious animals, accuſtomed to land and water; they grow to a prodigious length, twenty feet and upwards. In ſhape they are like a lizard; with four ſhort feet, or rather claws, and ſome of them are ſo large as to ſwallow a man; they have a flat head, their eyes indifferently large, and their back covered with broad ſcales, like ſome antiquated pieces of armour. They ſeem to move with the greateſt ſtrength and agility in the water; and though they run a great pace by land, yet their bodies are ſo long and unwieldy, that they cannot eaſily turn, whereby their prey eſcapes them on ſhore. They watch, therefore, in the ſedge, and other cover, by the ſides of rivers, and ſo much reſemble the trunk of a tree, that, it is ſaid, travellers, miſtaking them for ſuch, have been unwarily ſurpriſed. As for the tears and alluring voice aſcribed to the crocodile by the ancients, they may be conſidered as mere fiction; and the ſame may be ſaid of the little bird trochileus, which is reported to live on the meat which ſhe picks out of the crocodile's teeth; and the rat ichneumon, which jumps into the crocodile's mouth, and eats its way out again through his belly. Notwithſtanding crocodiles grow to ſuch a prodigious ſize, it ſeems they proceed from an egg no bigger than a turkey's, hatched in the warm ſand. *Crocodiles.*

The hippopotamus, or ſea-horſe, is another amphibious animal which frequents the Nile. M. Thevenot ſays, he ſaw one, which was ſhot by ſome janizaries as it was grazing on the land. It was about the bigneſs of a camel, of a tawny colour, the hinder part made more like an ox, and the head like that of a horſe, with great open noſtrils, the eyes and ears ſmall, thick large feet, almoſt round, and four claws, the tail like an elephant's, and not more hair than upon an elephant. In the lower jaw it had four great teeth, half a foot long, two of them crooked, and as large as the horns of an ox, and the other two ſtrait, but ſtanding out in length. Theſe monſters are very rare, even *The hippopotamus.*

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even in Africa, for none had been ſeen there for many years before.

The cameleon. The cameleon is reckoned among the remarkable animals of Egypt, but it is not peculiar to this country. In ſhape and ſize it partly reſembles a lizard, and partly a frog, and is, in a true light, of a greeniſh colour, but aſſumes the colour of moſt things it ſtands near. It was formerly thought to have lived only upon air, but has been obſerved to take flies, by darting out its tongue, which is of an extraordinary length; however, thoſe that have kept them in boxes, obſerve that they will live ſeveral months without any nouriſhment but what they draw in with their breath.

Oſtrich. The oſtrich is another animal very common in the deſerts of Egypt and Arabia. They are the talleſt fowls we meet with any where, and will ſtrike a blow like a horſe, with their huge feet. Their backs are ſhaped almoſt like a camel's, and they run a prodigious pace, aſſiſted by their wings, which are of little uſe to them in flying, for they can ſcarce raiſe themſelves from the ground, and the Arabs frequently ride them down.

Baſiliſk. The ſerpent called the baſiliſk, or cockatrice, whoſe very eyes dart certain death, if we may credit the ancients, is ſaid to be found alſo in Egypt; but this may be rather ſuppoſed to be only a ſimile of the ancient poets, to illuſtrate how fatally young men are frequently allured and captivated by the eyes of ſome fair charmer to their deſtruction. *Aſp.* The aſp is another little ſerpent found alſo in this country, by whoſe bite the celebrated Cleopatra and her ladies choſe to die, the poiſon operating ſuddenly, and throwing the party into a deep ſleep; though its effects are ſaid to be various, ſome who are wounded by it dying in a laughing fit, and others weeping.

Other animals. Egypt is famous for camels, dromedaries, and fine horſes, as the neighbouring country of Arabia. Oxen, buffaloes, goats, and ſheep, are to be met with likewiſe in great plenty here; eſpecially the ſheep with fat tails, which weigh ſeveral pounds. They abound alſo with poultry, geeſe, ducks, and a great variety of ſmall birds; but fiſh is not very good or plentiful, unleſs in the maritime parts, and near the mouth of the Nile. Upon the retiring of the waters of that river to the uſual channel, a multitude of frogs and other inſects are produced; and was there not a large fowl like a ſtork, perhaps the ibis of the ancient Egyptians, which conſtantly devours them, they

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they would be annually afflicted with the plague of frogs.

As Egypt is inhabited by several different people, their stature, complexion, and habits are different. The genius, character, persons, and manner of life of the Turks and Arabs, are as already described in treating of their countries in Asia. The Moors and common people, who are natives of the country, are almost as swarthy as the Arabs in this hot climate; and they are generally an ill-looked people, and very slovenly, especially the Cophtis. The Egyptian women that are not exposed to the sun have fine complexions as well as features. All of them, in general, are very frugal in their diet. *Present inhabitants of Egypt.*

The Egyptians are certainly a very ancient nation, though far from being so ancient as they make themselves, when they give us a catalogue of their princes, some of whom, according to them, must have lived several thousands of years before the creation. But, as is observed by some, that the Egyptians by years did not intend the periodical revolution of the sun, but of the moon, it may not be difficult to account for this mistake; besides, as it has been long since observed of the Chinese and other people, who run up their original so very high, that they give us no tolerable account or history of those pretended times, but, on the contrary, relate, that all arts and sciences, even agriculture, were introduced among them about the times our histories relate; if the world had been so old as they suggest, it must be very strange that these arts had not been introduced before, without which it would be very difficult for mankind to subsist. *History of the Egyptian sovereigns.*

That Egypt was planted by Misraim, the grandson of Noah, cannot be asserted, because it is very difficult to shew who were the first planters of almost any nation in the universe. It is sufficient that it appears, that this and several of the neighbouring nations were planted soon after the dispersion of the people at the tower of Babel. Cham, the son of Noah, is generally held to be the same with Jupiter Ammon, and Misraim, his grandson, the same with Osiris, the great deity of the Egyptians, and from him, it is said, descended that race of monarchs who had the general denomination of Pharaohs; but from whom, or how the word Pharaoh came to be the style of their kings, no satisfactory reason can be given.

There are reckoned above sixty princes of the line of these Pharaohs, and they reigned, as it is said, in an uninterrupted succession to the year of the world 3435, when

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Pharaoh Pſammiticus, the ſecond monarch of that name, was conquered by Cambyſes II. king of Perſia, who united Egypt to that empire, under which it remained till the reign of Darius, being upwards of a hundred years, when it revolted from that crown, and became an independent kingdom again, under Amyrteus, the firſt king after the revolt, in which ſtate it continued about fifty years, when Ochus, king of Perſia, recovered the dominion of it again; and it remained ſubject to the Perſian monarchs till Alexander the Great defeated Darius, when it fell under the power of that prince, with the reſt of the provinces of the Perſian empire.

After the death of Alexander, Ptolemy, the ſon of Lagus, or as others inſinuate, the ſon of Philip of Macedon, and conſequently half-brother of Alexander, found means to mount the throne of Egypt, and render it an independent kingdom once again. His ſucceſſors ever after retained the name of Ptolemy; and this line continued between two and three hundred years, the laſt ſovereign being the famous Cleopatra, wife and ſiſter to Ptolemy Dionyſius, the laſt king, and miſtreſs ſucceſſively to Julius Cæſar and Mark Anthony.

It was Ptolemy Philadelphus, ſon of the firſt Ptolemy, who collected the Alexandrian library, ſaid to conſiſt of ſeven hundred thouſand volumes, and the ſame prince cauſed the Scriptures to be tranſlated into Greek, but whether by ſeventy-two interpreters, and in the manner as is commonly related, is juſtly queſtioned. The Ptolemies ſometimes extended their dominion over great part of Syria, and were frequently at war with the kings of Syria, in which they met with various ſucceſs. After the death of Cleopatra this kingdom fell under the power of the Romans, and continued a Roman province till the reign of Heraclius, the emperor of Conſtantinople; when the people, being diſguſted with their governors, called in Omar, the third caliph of the Saracens, and ſubmitted themſelves to the Mohammedan power, about the year 640. But ſurely the adminiſtration of the Greek emperors muſt be very grievous, which could induce a Chriſtian nation to make choice of a Saracen for their ſovereign.

The caliphs of Babylon were ſovereigns here till about the year 870, when the Egyptians ſet up a caliph of their own, called the caliph of Cairo, to whom the Saracens of Africa and Spain were ſubject; but the governors of the provinces, or ſultans under the caliphs of Babylon and Cairo, ſoon wreſted the civil power out of the hands of their

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their caliphs, or high-prieſts, leaving them only a ſhadow of ſovereignty.

About the year 1160, Aſſareddin, or Saracen, general of Norradin, the Saracen ſultan of Damaſcus, ſubdued the kingdom of Egypt, and uſurped the dominion of it; being ſucceeded in this kingdom by his ſon Saladin, who reduced alſo the kingdoms of Damaſcus, Meſopotamia, and Paleſtine, under his power, and about the year 1190 took Jeruſalem from the Chriſtians. It was this prince who eſtabliſhed a body of troops in Egypt like the preſent janizaries, compoſed of the ſons of Chriſtians taken in war, or purchaſed of the Tartars, to whom he gave the name of mamalukes, which ſignifies no more than *ſlave*. Among the forces of the Mohammedan princes the title of ſlave is indeed very honourable, being expreſſive of a particular devotion to the ſervice of the ſovereign, and ſuch conſequently are intitled to greater privileges than other ſubjects. The poſterity of Aſſareddin enjoyed the crown till the year 1242, when the mamalukes depoſed Elmutan, as they had done his father Melech Aſſalach ſome years before, and ſet one of their own officers upon the throne. The firſt king of the race of the mamalukes was Turquemenius, and he and his ſucceſſors were engaged in continual wars with the Chriſtians in Syria and Paleſtine, till Araphus, the ſixth ſultan, entirely diſpoſſeſſed the Chriſtians of the Holy Land. The ninth ſultan, Melechnaſſer, ſubdued the iſland of Cyprus, and made it tributary to Egypt. About the year 1501, Campſon Gaurus, the fifteenth ſultan of the mamalukes, entering into an alliance with Iſmael, the ſophi of Perſia, againſt Selim, the third emperor, and tenth king of the Ottoman family, the confederates received ſeveral memorable defeats; and Tonombeius II. who ſucceeded Campſon Gaurus, was depoſed and murdered by Selimus, and, according to ſome accounts, hanged up at one of the gates of Grand Cairo. Gazelle, one of the grandees of the mamalukes, maintained a war for ſome time againſt Selimus, but was at length defeated, and Egypt made a province of the Ottoman empire. The mamaluke ſultans were always choſen by a majority of mamalukes out of their own body, who were ſo jealous of the kingdom's being made hereditary, that they ſcarce ever elected the ſon of the preceding ſultan; and if the choice ever happened to fall upon ſuch a one, they were ſo apprehenſive of its being made an ill precedent, that they never reſted till they depoſed him.

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Preſent government of Egypt.

Since the Ottoman emperors have had the dominion of this kingdom, they always governed it by a viceroy, ſtyled the baſſa of Grand Cairo; but as Egypt is ſubdivided into ſeveral inferior governments, theſe governors are not ſent from Conſtantinople, or appointed by the viceroy, but are natives of Egypt, and ſeem to be veſted with ſovereign power in their reſpective diſtricts. The grand ſignior has thought fit to humour them in this reſpect, rather than hazard the revolt of ſo rich a province, which is now eſteemed the granary of Conſtantinople, as it was anciently of Rome; for this is a ſoil ſo fertilized by the Nile, that it is not in the power of the Turks, it ſeems, to render it barren. But another great reaſon of its continuing fruitful is, that the Egyptians, by being ſtill governed by their own princes, have an inheritance in their lands, which are privileges very few of the ſubjects of Turkey enjoy beſides; neither dares the Turkiſh government to overload this people with taxes, for fear of a general revolt; ſo that, except what the viceroy and his creatures illegally extort from them, the whole revenue raiſed by the government does not amount to a million of our money, of which two thirds are ſpent within the kingdom, and not more than one third comes into the grand ſignior's treaſury.

Gypſies.

We muſt not forget that from Egypt came that vagrant race called gypſies, diſperſed into every kingdom of Europe and Aſia. They were originally called Zinganees by the Turks, from their captain Zinganeus, who, when ſultan Selim made a conqueſt of Egypt, about the year 1517, refuſed to ſubmit to the Turkiſh yoke, and retired into the deſerts, where they lived by rapine and plunder, and frequently came down into the plains of Egypt, committing great outrages in the towns upon the Nile, under the dominion of the Turks. But being at length ſubdued and baniſhed Egypt, they agreed to diſperſe themſelves in ſmall parties into every country in the known world; and as they were natives of Egypt, a country where the occult ſciences, or black art, as it was called, was ſuppoſed to have arrived to great perfection, and which, in that credulous age, was in great vogue with perſons of all religions and perſuaſions, they found the people wherever they came very eaſily impoſed on.

Cauſes of the ſuperſtition of the Egyptians.

If we trace theſe cheats, theſe illuſions of fancy, back to their original ſource, we ſhall find them all flowing from the ſuperſtition in which the ideas of the Egyptians were

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were primitively immerſed. How could this people avoid being highly ſuperſtitious? Egypt was the country of enchantment; imagination was there perpetually ſtruck by the grand machines of the marvellous, and nothing was to be ſeen but phantoms to terror and admiration. The prince was an object of aſtoniſhment and fear; like the thunder which gathers in the depths of the clouds, and ſeems there to roll with greater grandeur and majeſty; it was from the inmoſt receſſes of his labyrinths, and his palace, that the monarch dictated his will. The kings never ſhewed themſelves without the terrifying and formidable apparatus of a power ſprung from a divine original. The death of the king was an apotheoſis; the earth ſunk under the weight of their mauſoleums. By theſe powerful gods Egypt was covered with ſuperb obeliſks, filled with wonderful inſcriptions, and with enormous pyramids, whoſe ſummits were loſt in the air; by theſe beneficent gods thoſe lakes were formed which ſecured Egypt againſt the inattentions of nature.

More formidable than the throne and its monarchs, the temples and their pontiffs ſtill farther impoſed on the imagination of the Egyptians. In one of theſe temples was the coloſſus of Serapis: no mortal dared to approach it. With the duration of this coloſſus was connected that of the world; whoever ſhould break this taliſman would have replunged the earth into its firſt chaos. No bounds were ſet to credulity; every thing in Egypt was ænigma, wonder, and myſtery. All the temples gave oracles; all the caverns bellowed forth horrible howlings; every where were ſeen tremulous tripods, the Pythia in a rage, victims, prieſts, and magicians, who, inveſted with the power of the gods, were ready to exert their vengeance.

The philoſophers, armed againſt ſuperſtition, roſe up againſt it, but ſoon engaged in the labyrinth of too abſtracted metaphyſics, diſpute divided their opinions; intereſt and fanaticiſm took advantage of them, and produced the chaos of their different ſyſtems; from thence ſprung the pompous myſteries of Iſis, Oſiris, and Horus. Then, covered with the myſterious and ſublime darkneſs of theology and religion, the impoſture remained undiſcovered. If ſome Egyptians perceived it, by the glimmering light of doubt, revenge, always ſuſpended over the head of the indiſcreet, turned their eyes from the light, and locked up truth in their mouths. Even the kings, who, to guard againſt all diſreſpect, had at firſt, in concert with the prieſts, raiſed up terror and ſuperſti-

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tion about the throne, were themſelves terrified at them, and ſoon entruſted the temples with the ſacred depoſitum of the young princes; fatal epoch of the tyranny of the Egyptian prieſts! No obſtacle could then oppoſe their power. Their ſovereigns were encircled from their infancy with the bandage of opinion, free and independent as they were; and while they might ſee nothing in theſe prieſts but cheats and mercenary enthuſiaſts, they became their ſlaves and victims. The people, the imitators of their kings, followed their example, and all Egypt fell proſtrate before the feet of the pontiff and the altar of ſuperſtition.

SECT III.

Of Ethiopia, comprehending the Countries of Nubia, Abyſſinia, Abeſh, and Anian; Zanguebar, Monomotapa, Monemugi, and Caffraria.

THE ancients, as it appears from their hiſtories, called all that they knew of Africa to the ſouthward of Egypt, Ethiopia, and the people Ethiopes, from their dark complexions; but the moderns include only under that denomination the countries of Nubia, Abyſſinia, Abeſh, and Anian, which are bounded by Egypt and the deſart of Barca on the north; by the Red Sea and the Eaſtern Ocean on the eaſt; by Zanguebar and Caffraria on the ſouth; and by Guinea, Nigritia, and Zaara, on the weſt; however, all the countries ſtill, according to the ancient diviſion, that lie almoſt in a ſtraight line from Egypt to the Cape of Good Hope, may be comprehended under the general name of Ethiopia, divided, as before mentioned, into Upper and Lower.

Boundaries of Ethiopia, and the countries comprehended under that name.

Nubia.

Nubia is bounded by Egypt towards the north; by Abyſſinia on the ſouth; by the coaſt of Abeſh on the eaſt; and by Zaara and Nigritia on the weſt. It is ſaid to be four hundred leagues in length, and two hundred in breadth; but ſcarce any two hiſtorians or geographers agree in theſe matters, ſeeming to gueſs at almoſt every thing they relate of Nubia, which is the caſe of almoſt every other inland country of Africa. Some tell us of a conſiderable river that riſes here, and falls into the Nile; that the country abounds in gold, muſk, ſandal wood, and ivory; that it has elephants, horſes, camels, lions, and ſuch other animals, wild and tame, as are found in the neigh-

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neighbouring country of Abyſſinia; but they give us not the leaſt intimation whether it be a monarchy or commonwealth; or whether it is divided into many little kingdoms and ſtates, the laſt of which is moſt probable, becauſe we hear ſo little of the inhabitants. The ſame uncertainty we meet with in regard to their religion; but it is highly probable Paganiſm, Judaiſm, Chriſtianity, or Mohammedaniſm, is profeſſed by one or other of the natives, people of all thoſe various religions bordering upon them.

Abyſſinia. Abyſſinia has now little communication with the reſt of the world, the Turks having poſſeſſed themſelves of Abeſh, which runs along the weſtern coaſt of the Red Sea, and the reſt of it being ſurrounded by mountains or unpaſſable deſarts. Within theſe it appears to be an exceeding fine country, diverſified with woods and fruitful plains, well planted with palm-trees, dates, and cedars, and watered by ſeveral noble rivers. The river Nile riſes in the midſt of it, and having firſt taken a circuit almoſt round its ſource, runs one hundred miles to the northward, and afterwards two hundred miles towards the eaſt; then turning to the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt, continues its courſe two hundred and fifty miles farther. In this courſe it forms the lake of Dambea, of one hundred and twenty miles extent. From thence it takes a ſemicircular ſweep of five hundred miles, and then turning directly north, enters the kingdom of Egypt. This winding courſe not only renders the ſoil extremely fertile, but is of great advantage to inland commerce; though, after the Nile's entering Egypt, there are ſo many ſteep falls and cataracts, that the river is no longer properly navigable for the purpoſes of traffic. Being ſwelled by the rains which annually fall at a certain ſeaſon between the tropics, it overflows all the lower grounds that border on it; and this is the caſe of all the rivers that riſe within the tropics, though the ancients were at ſo great a loſs to account for this periodical flood; and what increaſes the flood ſtill more are the torrents that fall from the numerous hills with which this country is incumbered. The inhabitants, however, have this advantage from their hills, that they can remove thither in the hot ſeaſon, and enjoy a cooler air than they do in Egypt, which lies ſeveral degrees north of Abyſſinia. Their vallies, alſo, rendered fruitful by their annual rains and the numerous rivulets, produce plenty of corn, rice, wine, flax, ſugar, and fruits proper for the climate. Their flax is eſteemed the fineſt in the world; and from hence,

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it is said, the Egyptians had theirs, of which they made the fine linen of Egypt mentioned in the Scripture; and had they, at this day, an opportunity of exporting the produce of their soil, this country alone, it it thought, might raise rice, sugar, and other commodities, sufficient to supply all the neighbouring countries. The Turks, who are masters of the coast of the Red Sea, though they will suffer no other nation to trade to Abyssinia, annually export great quantities of rice from hence, particularly at the times of the great pilgrimages to Mecca, Arabia not affording provision sufficient for their subsistence. Gold is also very plentiful here, of which the Turks get some; and had the Abyssinians an opportunity of bartering it for the merchandize of Europe, as great a plenty of it might be found in this country as any where, though none of the gold mines are wrought at present, but only those of silver and copper. Amongst other precious stones they have the largest emeralds in the world. Their cattle are camels, oxen, sheep, asses, all in great plenty, and very large; their wild beasts are such as are common to the rest of Africa; but what they are most famous for, is an excellent breed of horses, equal to those of Arabia; or, as some conjecture, those of Arabia are, in reality, bred in Abyssinia, where they abound in rich pastures. As to the persons of the Ethiopians or Abyssinians, they are generally of a good stature; their complexion a deep black, but their features more agreeable than their southern neighbours, having neither flat noses nor thick lips like other Caffres. The sovereign of this country was once absolute; but at present the great men set up for princes in their respective governments, and the king can transact nothing of any consequence without them. It was the king of this country, that the Europeans used to style Prester John. The Portuguese, it is said, when they first discovered it, seeing a cross always carried before him, styled him priest, or Presbyter Maximus. He took upon him the supreme ecclesiastical as well as civil power; others say, the Turks gave him the name of Prester Cham, or Cam, that is, *king of slaves*, because they purchased most of their Negro slaves in this country. The government appears now to be a republic, or rather a mixed monarchy, in which the prince's power is extremely limited by the great men. As to the common people, it is not very material whether the power be lodged in the king or lords, for they are all slaves either to the one or the other. Their religon is a mixture of Christianity and Judaism; but

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but they ſeem to adhere more to the Greek church than to the Latin. They keep both the Chriſtian and the Jewiſh ſabbath, and both baptize and circumciſe their children, and even their females. They are ſaid to have a great deal of vivacity and natural wit, to be of a teachable diſpoſition, and fond of learning, though they have but few opportunities of improving themſelves. The better ſort of them are clothed in veſts, made of ſilk ſtuffs or cotton, after the manner of the Franks in Turkey; but their poor people go almoſt naked, having only a ſmall piece of ſkin or coarſe ſtuff wrapped about their waiſts. They have no other bread than thin cakes baked upon the hearth, as they want them; they eat all manner of fleſh almoſt as the Europeans do, except ſwine's fleſh, and ſuch other meats as were prohibited to the Jews; they alſo abſtain from things ſtrangled, and from blood, killing their meat in the ſame manner as the Jews do. As to the poor people, they live chiefly upon milk, butter, cheeſe, roots, herbs, and what their flocks and herds produce. This is the country from whence it is ſuppoſed, the queen of Sheba came to hear the wiſdom of Solomon; and from whence the eunuch, prime miniſter of queen Candace, came, who was converted to Chriſtianity, and baptiſed by St. Philip. Ethiopia was then a mighty empire, ſubject to one ſovereign, who commanded the ſea-coaſt as well as the inland country. When the Portugueſe miſſionaries reſorted to Ethiopia, towards the latter end of the fifteenth century, they brought over a great many of the Ethiopians to their religion, and perſuaded the emperor not only to acknowlege the pope's ſupremacy, but to admit a patriarch amongſt them ſent thither from Rome. The government alſo conſented to aboliſh their ancient rites and ceremonies, and conform entirely to the ritual of the Latin church; but many of the nobility and governors of the provinces, with a majority of the common people, having the greateſt abhorrence of theſe innovations, roſe in arms againſt their emperor, which occaſioned civil wars in Ethiopia, that laſted upwards of one hundred years, wherein many thouſands were killed. But the court, with the aſſiſtance of the Jeſuits, European engineers, and ſome Portugueſe troops, were generally victorious over thoſe of the ancient religion, but could never ſubdue their obſtinate perſeverance in it; and ſeveral provinces revolted entirely from the emperor. However, the Ethiopian emperors continued ſtill to profeſs the tenets of the Latin church, and to ſubmit to the dictates of Rome; till

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till at length the Jeſuits, under pretence of maintaining the pope's eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction, took upon them to direct moſt ſecular affairs, treating the prince rather as a viceroy to the pope than ſovereign of the country; and having erected and garriſoned ſeveral forts, were ſending for European forces to maintain their uſurped power, when the emperor, as well as the nobility, taking the alarm, agreed at once to aboliſh popery, and reſtore their ancient religion. The Romiſh prieſts were hereupon generally ſacrificed to the fury of the people, and their patriarch very narrowly eſcaped out of the country with his life: and when afterwards three Capuchins came as far as Squaquena, upon the Red Sea, from whence they ſent letters to the emperor of Ethiopia to obtain leave to come into his territories again; that prince requeſted the Turkiſh baſſa, who commanded on the coaſt, to ſuffer no Franks to come that way into his territories, and to ſend him the heads of thoſe Capuchins. This the baſſa not only obliged him in, but ſent him their ſkins flayed off and ſtuffed, that he might know them to be Franks by their colour, and prieſts by their ſhaved crowns. Thus have the Romiſh miſſionaries procured themſelves to be baniſhed out of almoſt every country where they have planted their religion. They have, indeed, by their ſkill in medicine and mathematics, and an artful addreſs, inſinuated themſelves into the courts of many great princes; but their ill adviſed advancing of the pope's ſupremacy to an extravagant height, together with their endeavours to control the government in civil as well as eccleſiaſtical matters, has ever occaſioned their expulſion. Thus it was in Japan, where the emperor, finding them encroaching upon his civil authority, ordered every Chriſtian in his dominions to be maſſacred, and that no Chriſtian ſhould ever ſet foot on ſhore there again. This alſo has put a ſtop to their progreſs in China, and occaſioned very ſevere perſecutions of the Chriſtians there. Still the Jeſuits perſiſt in their encroachments on princes where they have an opportunity; but the conſequence muſt be, as we lately have found it verified by the conduct of the kings of Portugal and France, that they will at length procure their own extirpation by the general conſent of Chriſtian princes, as the Knights Templars did by their inſolence, in the fourteenth century. There ſeems nothing more material to add in regard to the Abyſſinians, but that the ſons of the emperor ſucceed according to their ſeniority,

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as do thoſe of the nobility who have obtained an independency; but the reſt of the people have no inheritance of their lands, nor can diſpoſe of their eſtates or effects, but by the permiſſion of the emperors, or their reſpective lords. The prince is ſtyled Negaſcht by his ſubjects, which in their language ſignifies, *king of kings*; and for this reaſon the Europeans give him the title of emperor. The Perſians alſo give him the title of Pat-ſha, *the diſpoſer of kingdoms*, which is the higheſt title known in Aſia, and equal to that of emperor in Europe. But every one of theſe princes, at his acceſſion to the throne, aſſumes a particular title; one ſtyles himſelf the Pillar of Faith; another, the Virgin's Incenſe; and another, the Beloved of God, ſprung from the ſtock of Judah, the ſon of David, the ſon of Solomon, &c. for they have a tradition, that their princes are deſcended from Solomon by the queen of Sheba. The arms of the emperor are a lion rampant, holding a croſs, with this motto, Vicit Leo de Tribu Judah.

Abeſh and Anian.

That part of Ethiopia which is called by the name of Abeſh and Anian, is bounded by Egypt and Abyſſinia towards the north and weſt; by the Red Sea and the Eaſtern Ocean, on the eaſt; and by Zanguebar on the ſouth; extending from the fifth degree of north latitude to the twentieth. Anian lies upon, or near the Eaſtern Ocean, and the Red Sea. The Portugueſe and other Europeans, who have viſited it of late years, aſſure us, it is a perfect deſart, from latitude five, to the ſtreights of Babelmandel, and even within thoſe ſtreights for ſeveral miles. The Turks are maſters of the coaſt of Abeſh to the northward of Anian, and in the principal ports Suaquem and Arquico, about one hundred and fifty miles diſtant from each other, keep ſtrong garriſons, which command the country, a fruitful tract of ground, populous, and abounding with plenty of moſt things.

Zanguebar.

Under the name of Zanguebar, may be included all the eaſt coaſt of Africa, extending from five degrees north to twenty-eight ſouth, and comprehending the countries of Magadoxa, Melinda, Quiloa, Mozambic, and Sofala. All the people upon this coaſt are in alliance, or rather ſubject to the Portugueſe. The country of Magadoxa is barren, affording ſcarce any merchandize or cattle, unleſs a good breed of horſes, which the natives, a mixture of Pagans, Mohammedans, and Chriſtians, ſell to the Portugueſe, who diſpoſe of them again to the Arabs. Melinda, though it

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it lies so near the equator, is exceeding pleasant, fruitful, and healthful, being frequently refreshed with showers and fine sea-breezes. The city of the same name, and the capital of the Portuguese dominions in this part of the world, is situate in two degrees and a half south latitude, on an island at the mouth of a river also of the same name. It is a large populous place, well built, and has a good harbour commanded by a strong citadel. Some calculate that the inhabitants of the city, and the little island on which it stands, do not amount to less than two hundred thousand souls, great part of them Christians. The public buildings, consisting of seventeen churches, nine religious houses, the governor's palace, and the magazine and town-hall, exceed any thing of the kind in magnificence that is to be found in Africa. The warehouses are stocked with all sorts of European goods, with which the Portuguese trade with the natives for gold, elephants teeth, slaves, ostrich-feathers, wax, sena, aloes, civet, ambergrise, and frankincense. The country produces also rice, millet, sugar, and fruits; and the Portuguse export great quantities of rice to their other settlements, besides what they use. The king of the country of Quiloa, which lies to the southward of Melinda, pays, it is said, a tribute in gold to the Portuguese, amounting to the value of one hundred thousand crusades annually. Excellent sugar-canes are here produced, but the Portuguese do not improve them, by reason of the unhealthiness of the climate. The country of Mozambic lies south of Quiloa; the chief town is situate on an island on the mouth of a river of the same name, in fifteen degrees south latitude. It is regularly fortified, and has a good harbour, defended by a citadel; and the island on which it stands, is thirty miles in circumference, and extremely populous. The Portuguese shipping to and from India, call here for refreshments; and, as this country produces great herds of cattle, the Portuguese kill beef, and salt it up, sending it to the Brasils, or selling it to the European shipping. They also barter European goods with the natives for their gold, elephants teeth, and slaves. The town has six churches and several monasteries. Mongale, another island-town in this country, is also garrisoned by the Portuguese, being their chief staple for European goods. The gold they receive from the natives, is found near the surface of the earth, or in the sands of rivers, no gold mines, or very few, being at present wrought in

Africa.

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Africa. The country or kingdom of Sofala lies ſouth of Mozambic, and the gulf of the ſame name, is part of the channel of Mozambic, on the eaſt. From the mouth of the river of the Holy Ghoſt to Cape Corientes, the ſoil is very even, barren, and deſart; but from that cape to the mouth of the river Cumena, the country is fruitful and very populous. The coaſt is very low, and mariners diſcover their approach to it, not ſo much by their ſight as ſmell, becauſe it abounds with fragrant flowers. The inhabitants aſſert, that their gold mines yield above two millions of metigals per annum, each amounting to about twelve ſhillings ſterling; that the ſhips from Zeedin and Mecca carry off above two millions a-year in time of peace; and that the governor of Mozambic, whoſe office laſts but three years, has above three hundred thouſand crowns revenue, without reckoning the ſoldiers pay, and the king of Portugal's tribute. From hence Moquet concludes this to be the Ophir, whither Solomon ſent ſhips every three years from Eziongeber, to fetch gold; Eziongeber being thought to be Suez, a ſea-port on the Red Sea. This conjecture is ſupported by ſeveral edifices, which ſeem to have been built by foreigners. Some think this to be confirmed by the authority of the Septuagint, who tranſlate the word [p] Ophir by the word Σοφειρα, *Sophira*; and ſince liquids are often put for one another, Sophira does not differ much from Sofala. Beſides, Thomas Lopez, in his India voyage, relates, that the inhabitants of this country boaſt that they have books which prove, that in the time of Solomon, the Iſraelites ſailed every third year towards theſe parts to fetch gold. The inhabitants of Quiloa, Mombaza, and Melinda, come to this country in little boats, called zambues, with ſtuffs of blue and white cottons, ſilk ſtuffs, yellow and red ambergriſe, which they exchange here for gold and ivory, and the natives ſell them again to the ſubjects of Monomotapa, who give them gold in return without weighing it. It is ſaid, that when the Sofaleſe ſee ſhips coming, they light up fires, to ſignify that they ſhall be welcome. The capital city here, and the only one of note, is alſo called Sofala. It ſtands on a river of the ſame name, about ſix leagues from the ſea-coaſt. The Portugueſe are maſters of it, having built a ſtrong fortreſs there, ever ſince the year 1500. Their chief trade conſiſts in ambergriſe, gold, ſlaves, and ſilk ſtuffs. They likewiſe take

[p] 2 Kings, ix. 28.

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care to have thoſe mines worked, which lie to the ſouth of the town. This country is ſpacious, and little known to any but to them; and they appear to be wiſer in relation to the conduct of their trade in Africa than any other of the European potentates, having not contented themſelves with erecting a few forts and factories, but ſettled themſelves upon the continent in great numbers, and brought the natives to clothe according to the European mode; which has created a conſiderable and profitable commerce to them.

Monomotapa. Monomotapa, an inland country in this part of Africa, has the maritime kingdom of Sofala on the eaſt, the river del Spiritu Santo, on the ſouth; the mountains of Caffraria on the weſt; and the river Cauma on the north, which parts it from Monemugi. The air of this country is very temperate, the land fertile in paſtures, and all the neceſſaries of life, being watered by ſeveral rivers, on the banks of which grow many fine trees and ſugar-canes without any culture; and yet this fine country is not peopled in all parts of it. The inhabitants are rich in horned cattle, which they value more than gold. They have no beaſts of burden, but a vaſt number of elephants, as appears from the great quantity of ivory that is exported from this country. Here are a great many gold mines; and the rivers that run through their veins, carry a great deal of gold duſt along with their ſtreams. The inhabitants dive to the bottom of the rivers and lakes, take up the ſand, and carry it no the banks to ſeparate the gold from it. They are tall, well-ſhaped, ſtrong, healthy, and much more lively than the people of Mozambic and Melinda; and they are beſides lovers of war, which is the trade followed by all thoſe who do not apply themſelves to commerce. This country is divided into ſeven provinces, or petty kingdoms, vaſſals to the king. Manica, ſituate on the ſouth of the river del Spiritu Santo, is the capital town, and to the ſouth of it are gold mines.

Monemugi, another country in the ſouth of Africa, has Zanguebar on the eaſt, Monomotopa on the ſouth, Motamba and Makoko on the weſt, and Abyſſinia on the north, and partly to the weſt, though its boundaries that way cannot be exactly aſcertained. It is divided into the following parts: 1. Mujaco borders on Congo weſtward, on Nubia northward, on Abyſſinia and on Makoko ſouthward. That the extent of this monarchy is very great, appears by the diſtant countries its confines extend to, and

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and the ſovereign's great power by his being in continual war with his neighbour the king of Makoko. The people of Congo travel hither for elephants teeth. 2. Makoko, otherwiſe called Anziko. Its boundaries northward, eaſtward, and ſouthward, cannot be well aſcertained. The people here do not till the ground, have no property, nor any ſettled habitation; but, like the Arabs, wander from place to place, and ſubſiſt by plunder. They traffic in the kingdom of Angola, whither they carry ſlaves from their own country, and from Nubia, which they exchange for ſalt, glaſs beads, ſilk, knives, and other wares. 3. Gingiro, a potent kingdom, lies between Narca, the moſt ſouthern kingdom of Abyſſinia, and Makoko and Cambate; north and eaſt of the firſt of them, and weſt of the latter. The great river Zebee, that runs down to Makoko, almoſt environs it. When the king here purchaſes any thing of foreign merchants, he pays them in ſlaves, and theſe are the ſons and daughters of any family, which he takes at pleaſure without contradiction. 4. Cambate joins to this kingdom on the weſt, has Abyſſinia on the north; Alaba, or the country of the Galas, on the eaſt; and Makoko on the ſouth. This country pays ſome acknowlegements to the emperor of Abyſſinia, which are only voluntary. 5. Alaba, another large kingdom, ſtill to the eaſtward of Cambate, inhabited by a cruel people, called Galas, and reaching to the coaſt of Zanguebar. 6. Monemugi Proper, ſo called, lies in the torrid zone, and about the equinoctial line, ſouth of Makoko, weſt of Zanguebar, north of Monomotapa, and eaſt of Congo and of the northern parts of Monomotapa. To aſcertain its extent is too difficult a taſk, being a country ſo little frequented. The country known abounds with gold, ſilver, and copper mines, and elephants. The natives clothe themſelves in ſilks and cottons, which they buy of ſtrangers, and wear collars of tranſparent amber beads, brought them from Cambaya, which beads ſerve alſo inſtead of money; gold and ſilver being too common, and of little value among them. Their monarch always endeavours to be at peace with the princes round about him, to keep an open trade with Quiloa, Melinda, and Mombaza, on the eaſt, and with Congo on the weſt, from all which parts the black merchants reſort thither for gold. The Portugueſe merchants report, that on the eaſt ſide of Monemugi, there is a great lake full of ſmall iſlands, abounding with all ſorts of fowl and cattle, and inhabited by Negroes. They relate alſo,

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that on the main land eaſtwards, they heard ſometimes the ringing of bells, and that one could obſerve buildings, very much like churches; and that from theſe parts came men of a brown and tawny complexion, who traded with thoſe iſlanders, and with the people of Monemugi. This country affords alſo abundance of palm-wine, and oil, and ſuch great plenty of honey, that above half of it is loſt, the blacks not being able to conſume it. The air is generally very unwholeſome, and exceſſively hot, which is the reaſon why no Chriſtians undertake to travel into this empire.

Caffraria. Caffraria is the laſt country that remains to be deſcribed in the ſouthern parts of Africa. It begins at Cape Negro, about the fifteenth degree and thirty minutes ſouth latitude; extends from thence ſouth-eaſterly to the Cape of Good Hope, thence north-eaſt to the river Del Spiritu Sancto, about the twenty-fifth degree of ſouth latitude, which river ſeparates it on the north-eaſt from Monomotapa; on the north it reaches almoſt to the equator, where it borders on the kingdom of Makoko; and on the north-weſt it has Congo, or Lower Guinea, with the kingdom of Benguela. Martiniere obſerves, that Caffraria is not properly the name of any particular country, and that there is no nation called Caffres, the appellation being rather opprobrious, and given by the Arabs to all thoſe who do not profeſs the Mohammedan religion. It is derived from the Arabic word Cafir, which ſignifies an *infidel*, or *unbeliever*. The Portugueſe taking the name in a more general ſenſe, have called Caffres all thoſe nations of Africa who have, or ſeem to have, no knowlege of a deity. From theſe boundaries of Caffraria, it appears to be a very large country, extending from Cape Negro to that of Good-Hope, near twenty degrees, or twelve hundred Engliſh miles from north to ſouth; from the Cape of Good-Hope north-eaſt, to the mouth of the river Del Spiritu Sancto, about eight hundred and fifty miles; and from the ſame cape almoſt to the equinoctial line, about twenty-nine degrees, or one thouſand ſeven hundred and forty miles. Its greateſt breadth, from Cape St. Tome to the mouth of the above river, is about nine hundred miles; but from the tropic of Capricorn, up to the equinoctial line, is breadth its not much above ſix hundred miles. Caffraria may be divided into the kingdom of Mataman, the country of the Hottentots, Terra de Natal, and Terra dos Fumos.

Mataman

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Mataman is bounded by the kingdom of Benguela on the north; by the river Bravahul on the eaſt and ſouth; and by the Ethiopic Ocean on the weſt. It extends from Cape Negro, in ſouth latitude 16° 30′, to the mouth of the river Bravahul, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, in ſouth latitude 24°, ſo that its greateſt length, from north to ſouth, is about four hundred and fifty Engliſh miles; but its greateſt breadth, from weſt to eaſt, is not above two hundred and ſixty miles. About two hundred miles to the weſt of Cape Negro, the climate is pretty temperate; and, though the coaſt is very ſandy, the country is pretty fruitful, and produces a great variety of proviſions. The lands are extremely ſandy all along the ſea-coaſt, and the harbours bad, and little frequented. Here are no towns nor cities bordering upon the ſea, but only poor ſcattering villages.

The country of the Hottentots is bounded on the north-weſt by part of the river Bravahul; on the north it extends to the tropic of Capricorn; on the north-eaſt, the river Del Spiritu Sancto parts it from the empire of Monomotapa; on the eaſt and ſouth it has the Eaſtern Ocean; and on the weſt the Ethiopic Ocean.

Cape of Good Hope.

The Cape of Good Hope, which is the moſt famous place for any traffic among the Hottentots, was firſt diſcovered in the year 1493, by Bartholomew Dias, a Portugueſe admiral, in the reign of John II. king of Portugal. The admiral gave it the name of Cabo dos totos los Tormentos, or, *the Cape of Great Sorrows*, from the boiſterous winds that are almoſt continually roaring there. But the king changed that name into Cabo del buonne Eſperanza, or, *the Cape of Good Hope*; becauſe, ſays he, there was now good hope of making proſperous voyages to the Eaſt Indies; and by that name it has been known in Europe ever ſince. It lies in latitude 34 deg. 15 min. ſouth, and longitude 20 deg. 10 min. eaſt of London.

Though this famous cape was firſt diſcovered by Dias, yet he only went ſo near it as to obſerve its ſituation, bays, and anchorings; but the Portugueſe never made any ſettlement there; nor did the Dutch, who firſt viſited it in the year 1600, immediately diſcern all the advantages ariſing from this ſituation; and they only touched there for many years, in their voyages to and from the Eaſt Indies, to traffic for proviſions. For this purpoſe, they went from time to time, in bodies up into the country, and having thrown up a ſmall fort near the harbour, they ſecured themſelves and their purchaſes in the night-time,

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till they had ſhipped them. The Dutch made another uſe of the Cape, while things were carried on this way, which was a notable contrivance: every commander going out was provided with a ſquare ſtone, upon which, at his departure from the Cape, he cauſed his own name, that of his ſhip, and the names of his principal officers, to be fairly cut, together with the day he arrived there, and the day he departed. The ſtone, with ſuch inſcriptions, was buried in a certain place without the fort, and under it was put a tin box, ſealed up, containing letters from the captain, and others, to the directors of the Dutch Eaſt India company, together with ſuch other letters as any perſon on board thought fit to ſend into Europe. This ſtone and box were taken up by the next ſhip that paſſed by the Cape, in her return, and by her conveyed to Holland. And whoever conſiders the ſituation of the Cape (as a ſort of half-way houſe in the Eaſt India voyage), and the ſatisfaction the company by this means received, from time to time, concerning the fortune and condition of their ſhips, will acknowlege this a very uſeful contrivance.

After this manner the Dutch uſed the Cape till the year 1650, when their fleet anchoring before it for the uſual purpoſe, M. Van Reibeck, a ſurgeon, belonging to it, had the penetration to diſcern the ſtill greater advantages which the company might reap from the Cape, by means of a very little cultivation. He obſerved that the country was plentifully ſtocked with cattle; that the ſoil was rich, and capable of generous productions; that the natives were tractable, and the harbour commodious and improveable; and upon the whole, made a good judgment to what a degree the Dutch trade might be ſecured, and facilitated by means of this ſituation: in a word, he ſaw that it was highly adviſeable for the Dutch to make a ſettlement there. Accordingly, he digeſted his obſervations, and, on his return to Holland, laid them before the directors of the Eaſt India company, who were ſo well ſatisfied with them, that, immediately after a grand conſultation on the ſame, they came to a reſolution to attempt a ſettlement at the Cape without loſs of time. Hereupon four ſhips were ordered for the Cape, with all the materials, inſtruments, artificers, and other hands neceſſary in ſuch an expedition. Van Riebeck, the ſurgeon, was appointed admiral, with a commiſſion, on his arrival, to act as governor and commander in chief of the intended ſettlement; and with power to treat, manage, and act,

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act, for the introduction and eſtabliſhment of the Dutch, in ſuch manner as he ſhould think fit. Van Reibeck arriving ſafely with thoſe four ſhips at the Cape, the natives were ſo captivated with the preſents he brought them of braſs, toys, beads, tobacco, brandy, &c. and ſo charmed with his addreſs, that a treaty was no ſooner ſet on foot than concluded; wherein it was agreed, that, in conſideration of ſuch a quantity of certain toys and commodities, to be delivered to the natives, as might coſt fifty thouſand guilders, the Dutch ſhould have full liberty to ſettle there. This being immediately performed, the Dutch took poſſeſſion of the Cape, which, with a great deal of ceremony, was delivered up to them. The traffic of the Dutch with the natives was alſo, by the ſame treaty, eſtabliſhed on a good and ſolid foundation, with many conſiderable privileges and regulations for their commercial intereſts.

In conſequence of theſe meaſures, the governor raiſed a fort, wherein he built dwelling-houſes, warehouſes, and an hoſpital for the reception of the ſick. To this fort he added proper outworks, to ſecure himſelf from any attacks from the Europeans. But, in proceſs of time, ſettlers flowing abundantly to the Cape, and trade greatly increaſing, the then governor, whoſe name was Bax, took notice, that the company's ſtore-houſes which were without the fort, would be ſoon too ſmall to receive all the company's merchandize at the Cape: he judged, likewiſe, that there was a neceſſity for augmenting the garriſon, ſince all the trading nations in Europe ſaw, and began to envy the Dutch, the advantages they made of the Cape, and that therefore it might be juſtly apprehended, that one or other of thoſe nations would attempt to wreſt it from them. Theſe things he repreſented to the court of directors, and propoſed to them the erecting a new fort in a more advantageous ſituation. This was accordingly done, and from time to time has been ſo augmented, that, at this day, it is a very ſtrong and ſtately building, and provided with all manner of accommodations for a garriſon. It covers the harbour roundly, and is of admirable defence towards the country; and the company's ſtorehouſes for merchandizes are very large and commodious.

The ſettlement being firmly eſtabliſhed, they increaſed and multiplied in people to ſuch a degree, that in a few years, being ſtill joined by new ſettlers from Europe, they began to extend themſelves into new colonies along the

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coaſt. At preſent, they are divided into four principal ones: the firſt is at the Cape, where are the grand forts and the capital city; the ſecond is the Hellenbogeſh; the third the Drakenſton; and the fourth the Waveriſh colony. The Dutch Eaſt India company has likewiſe bought, for the future increaſe of the people, all that tract of land called Terra de Natal, lying between the Mozambic and the Cape; for which they paid in toys, commodities, and utenſils, to the value of thirty thouſand guilders; ſo that the province is now become of great extent.

Eight particular eſtabliſhments conſtitute the preſent government of the Dutch colony at the Cape. Theſe are, a grand council; a court of juſtice; a petty court of aſſaults, &c. a court of marriages; a chamber of orphans; an eccleſiaſtical council; a common-council; and a board of militia; by means of all which, this colony is well regulated and governed.

In the neighbourhood of the Cape are three remarkable hills: the Table Hill is the higheſt of the three. On the tops are ſeveral fine ſprings, the water as clear as cryſtal, and of a very delicate taſte. Though at a diſtance no tokens of fertility are diſcovered on this hill, yet, in aſcending it, the eye is ſurpriſed with the charms of its fruitfulneſs. The ſtately trees with which it is adorned, are hardly to be diſcovered till one is juſt near them. On this hill, alſo, between two groves, a ſilver mine was diſcovered ſome years ago. Some ore dug out of it was ſent to Holland, but not yielding, it ſeems, ſuch a quantity of pure ſilver as to induce the company to think that the produce of the mine would anſwer the charge of working it, the mine was cloſed up and neglected: this mine may, probably, be wrought to good profit ſome years hence. Beſides the pleaſing arbours on this hill, the beauty, variety, and fragrancy of the flowers that grow in plenty, and adorn its tops and ſides, are not to be expreſſed, ſays Kolben; and they are more delightful to the eye, and more odoriferous, than any he ever met with in Europe. The other is called Lion Hill, which is ſeparated from the former by a valley, whereon ſtands a hut for the ſhelter of two men, poſted there by the government, to give notice to the fortreſs at the Cape of the appearance of any ſhip making in, of which they give ſignals to the fort. The laſt of theſe is the Wind Hill, which abounds with excellent paſture.

Part

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Part of the Hottentots have ſubmitted themſelves to the Hollanders, and are, therefore, ſtyled the company's Hottentots. The Dutch ſend annually about fifty or ſixty perſons to trade with them, who purchaſe their cattle, and give them in exchange, arrack, tobacco, hemp, and ſuch garden-ſeeds, &c. as they have occaſion for, by which means a good underſtanding is preſerved.

Several authors, particularly the Dutch, have been profuſe in their deſcriptions of every thing regarding the Hottentots; but it may ſuffice in general to obſerve, that they are of a middling ſtature, with ſmall limbs and active bodies, flat oval faces, large eye-brows, black eyes, and their colour and complexion rather tawny than black. They beſmear their bodies with greaſe and ſoot; with the latter, perhaps, to appear blacker, and often twiſt the guts of beaſts and fowls about their legs and arms in the manner of bracelets, which ſome ſay they occaſionally make uſe of for food. Upon their heads they wear ſome ſhells, and on their bodies a mantle of ſheep-ſkin, with the woolly ſide outwards, and another piece, like an apron, hanging before from the navel. Their huts are very mean, and ſo is their furniture, conſiſting only of two or three earthern pots to dreſs their victuals in, which are uſually herbs, fleſh, or ſhell-fiſh. In every village the eldeſt is firſt in order and dignity, his advice, as to what concerns the whole, being chiefly followed, as having moſt experience. They have neither temples, idols, nor any other peculiar place of worſhip; they celebrate, indeed, ſeveral nocturnal dances, with ſinging, at the new and full moon; but theſe are performed near their huts, and ſeem to be rather paſtimes, or merry-meetings, than any thing relating to religious worſhip. Their weapons are javelins, with which they are very dexterous at hitting a mark; and bows with poiſoned arrows, which are ſaid to be mortal on drawing blood. They are ſo fond of their own country, and the ſweets of a vagabond life, that there is no getting the better of their invincible reluctance to adopt the European manners and cuſtoms. For this reaſon, the Dutch miſſionaries, with all their endeavours, have not been able to convert a ſingle Hottentot. Van der Stel, a governor of the Cape, having procured a Hottentot infant, took care to have him brought up in the principles of the Chriſtian religion, and the manners and cuſtoms of Europe. He clothed him richly, had him taught ſeveral languages; and the boy's progreſs perfectly correſponded with the attention beſtowed upon it. The

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governor, big with expectations from his pupil's capacity, ſent him to the Indies with a commiſſary-general, who employed him uſefully in the company's affairs; but, the commiſſary dying, he returned to the Cape, and, in a viſit he made to ſome of his Hottentot relations a few days after his arrival, took the ſtrange reſolution to exchange all his European finery for a ſheep's ſkin. In this new dreſs he returned to the fort, loaded with a bundle containing the clothes he had thrown off, and preſented himſelf in the following words; "Be ſo kind, ſir, as to take notice, that I for ever renounce this apparel. I likewiſe for ever renounce the Chriſtian religion. It is my firm reſolution to live and die in the religion, manners, and cuſtoms of my anceſtors. All the favour I aſk from you, is to leave me the collar and the hanger I wear; I ſhall keep them for your ſake." Theſe words were ſcarce out of his mouth, when he took to his heels, and was out of ſight, nor did he ever appear among the Europeans again.

Our Engliſh ſeamen who have touched at the Cape, could never be reconciled to the Hottentots, but always conſidered them as the naſtieſt and moſt brutal people in the world. This is chiefly owing to their ill ſmell, occaſioned by their greaſing themſelves continually; yet this is not a cuſtom peculiar to the Hottentots, being uſed by moſt of the Negroes on the coaſt of Guinea. It is true, that the latter, generally ſpeaking, make uſe of oil, which is leſs offenſive; but when they cannot get that, like the Hottentots, they content themſelves with ſuch greaſe and kitchen-ſtuff as they can purchaſe from the Europeans who trade with them. This cuſtom prevails likewiſe in the Eaſt Indies, particularly on the Malacca coaſt, but more eſpecially in the iſlands; as, for inſtance, at Sumatra, where the natives greaſe themſelves as much, and ſmell to the full as ſtrong as the Hottentots. The Javaneſe, likewiſe, practiſe the ſame; and ſo do the people of the Philippines and of the Spice Iſlands; but then they commonly make uſe of cocoa-nut oil, which is far from being diſagreeable. In one reſpect, however, the Hottentots exceed them all; for they are particularly careful to greaſe and ſmut their faces, which is what the Indians never do. This cuſtom of anointing is not altogether unknown to the Americans, though, generally ſpeaking, they rather affect painting their bodies, perhaps, from the ſame cauſe that the Hottentots and Indians anoint themſelves,

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ſelves, in order to defend their naked bodies from the inclemency of the weather.

Terra Dos Fumos is but a ſmall country along the ſea-coaſt, from the mouth of the river Delagoa to that of Rio de Ladroon, or *the River of the Robbers.* The Europeans have no ſettlement for trade here, and the Caffres, who inhabit this country, have neither towns, villages, nor any ſettled dwelling.

To the north of the country of the Hottentots, is the land of Mozumbo Aculunga, which has the kingdom of Mataman on the weſt; the Hottentot country on the ſouth; Monomotapa on the eaſt; and the province of Ohila on the north. Next to this, northwards, lies the province of Ohila. Farther north is the kingdom of Abutua, which is ſaid to be rich in gold mines. Dapper ſays, that this province, which he calls Toroca, or Toroa, and others Butua, begins to the ſouth of the mountains of the Moon, and extends northwards to the river Magnica, having the river Bravagul on the weſt. The town of Fatacoa abounds with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones; and there are two gold mines at Boro and Quitici, two hundred leagues diſtant from Sofala; they are eſteemed the richeſt in the whole country. Going higher up to the north-eaſt, we find the kingdom of Chicova, abounding, travellers ſay, with ſilver mines. In regard to theſe, and ſeveral other barbarous nations, it may be obſerved, that their gold and ſilver, and precious ſtones, have no tendency, like arts and commerce, to civilize and give them any taſte for the rational enjoyments of life.

SECT. IV.

Of Guinea and Nigritia, or Negroland.

THE great region known by the name of Guinea, is divided into the two large countries of Upper and Lower Guinea, of which the latter is commonly called Congo. Theſe two together extend above two thouſand five hundred miles along the ſea-coaſt. *Diviſion and extent of Guinea.*

The moſt general diviſion of Upper Guinea is into three parts, viz. Malagueta, Guinea Proper, and Benin; which, together, extend five hundred leagues from eaſt to weſt. *Upper Guinea.*

1. The country of Malagueta, is generally known under the name of the Grain Coaſt, from the paradiſe grain, *Grain Coaſt.*

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or Guinea pepper, called Malagueta in Spaniſh, which grows here plentifully. This country is divided into the kingdoms of Sherbro, Quoja, and Sanguin, along the coaſt, and Manou inland. But theſe are little known, except near the coaſt. The chief place frequented by the Europeans is Sherbro, the capital of a petty kingdom of the ſame name. Sherbro river is navigable for canoes a great way up; the chief trade here is in cam-wood. Near the mouth of this river is York Iſland, on which the Engliſh had once a factory, and good fort, now in ruins. There is alſo another iſland called Farellons, which abounds with poultry, rice, potatoes, bananas, orange and lemon-trees. About twenty-five leagues diſtant from the mouth of the river Sherbro, to the ſouth-eaſt, is Cape Monte. It is furniſhed with numerous villages, and the Negroes on this part of the coaſt are extremely induſtrious, particularly in the planting of rice and boiling of ſalt.

2. The country of Guinea Proper, extends from Cape Palmas to the river Volta, about one hundred and forty leagues along the ſea-coaſt, which bounds it on the ſouth. It has the kingdom of Benin on the eaſt; Gago and Melli on the north; and Malagueta on the weſt. The Europeans divide it into two parts, the Tooth, and the Gold Coaſt; the former extends from Cape Palmas to the river Sueira da Coſta; and the latter from thence to the river Volta.

Ivory Coaſt. The Tooth, or Ivory, or Quaqua Coaſt, is thus called from the great plenty of elephants teeth traded in here. When the natives come to trade with any ſhip, they take ſome water into their hands, and let a few drops of it fall into their eyes, which is a kind of oath, whereby they ſignifiy, that they would rather loſe their eye-ſight than cheat thoſe they trade with. They are no leſs averſe to drunkenneſs than to fraud; and, though their country produces a prodigious number of palm-trees, yet they drink no palm-wine, but only a certain ſmall liquor which they mix with water. They have manufactures of cotton habits, which are called Quaqua gowns. A fundamental law of the country is, that every one is obliged to continue all his life-time in the condition in which he was born; ſo that one whoſe father was a fiſherman, for inſtance, can never become any thing but a fiſherman; and ſo of all other trades and profeſſions.

Gold Coaſt. The Gold Coaſt follows next; but why particularly ſo called cannot be well accounted for, ſince other countries in

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in Guinea produce gold alſo. Undoubtedly, all the countries in Guinea abound with gold mines; and though the natives are not artiſts enough to know where or how to follow a vein, yet they find great quantities of gold in ſeveral of their mines, which are alſo ſo ſacred to them, that they will not permit any European miner either to ſee their mines, or to ſearch for others. They bring down, however, good ſtore of what they find to the ſea-coaſts, as an article of their traffic. The natives, near the ſea, have another way of finding gold. In the rainy ſeaſons, after a wet night, the ſea-ſhore is covered with people, moſtly women, each with a couple of bowls, the largeſt of which they fill with ſuch ſand and earth as are driven down from the mountains by violent floods into the rivers and brooks. This ſand and earth they waſh with many waters, by often turning the bowl round, till it waſhes over the brim. The gold, if there be any, ſinks to the bottom, by reaſon of its weight; and thus they continue, till they have waſhed all the earth and ſand away, except two or three ſpoonfuls of the bottom, which they carefully take out, and lay by in the ſmall bowl, after filling of which, they carry the dregs home, and ſearch it diligently for the gold. Aſſinee, on this coaſt, is a country abounding with gold, and formerly a conſiderable trade was carried on here; but ſince the devaſtation made by a neighbouring nation, there is very little trade, in compariſon to what there was; and the little gold duſt that is brought hither, is either ſophiſticated, or of very ſmall value. From the Aſſinee to Cape Apollonia, a great deal of land has been cleared and ſown with Indian corn. The inhabitants here of Axim, a town of ſome note, are generally pretty opulent, carrying on a great trade with the Europeans in gold, which they chiefly vend to the Engliſh or Dutch. The natives induſtriouſly employ themſelves in trade, fiſhing, or agriculture. The latter is chiefly exerciſed in the article of rice, which grows here above all other places, in an incredible abundance, and is tranſported hence to all parts of the Gold Coaſt. The returns are in millet, yams, potatoes, and palm-oil, all which are very ſcarce here; for the ſoil is generally moiſt, and, though fit to produce rice, and ſome fruit-trees, does not kindly yield other fruits. The country throughout the Gold Coaſt abounds in hills, all adorned with extraordinary high and beautiful trees. The vallies between the hills are wide and extenſive, and fit for the planting of all ſorts of fruits; and if they were as well cultivated

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cultivated as watered, would ſupply half the coaſt with proviſions. The earth produces in great abundance very good rice, the richeſt ſort of millet, the grain of which is red; yams, potatoes, and other roots, all good in their kind; nor is the ſoil deficient in fruit-trees. The ſugar-canes grow here in greater plenty, and larger, than any where elſe on the coaſt of Guinea. Palm-wine and oil are very good, and in great plenty; the country alſo abounds in all ſorts of tame and wild beaſts.

Slave Coaſt. 3. The country of Benin comprehends the Slave Coaſt, having Guinea Proper, or, more particularly, the Gold Coaſt on the weſt; Gago, Brafera, with the deſert of Seth, on the north; Mujaac and Makoko on the eaſt; and part of Congo, with the Ethiopic Ocean, on the ſouth. It is commonly divided into three parts, viz. Whydah and Ardah, containing the Slave Coaſt, and Benin Proper.

Whydah, ſo called by the Engliſh, is called Juda by the French, and Fida by the Dutch. It is bounded on the weſt by the river Volta; on the ſouth it has the gulf of Guinea; on the eaſt, the kingdom of Ardah; and on the north, the kingdom of Dahomy. Whydah is allowed to be a very delightful country. The number and variety of tall and beautiful trees ſeem as if planted in fine groves for ornament. The lands were in general well cultivated, till the king of Dahomy conquered it. Before this time, the natives were ſo induſtrious, that few places thought fertile eſcaped cultivation; and they were ſo anxious in that particular, that, the day after they had reaped, they always ſowed again, without allowing the land time for reſt. The Engliſh African company have a fort here, wherein are mounted ſeveral pieces of cannon; and, at a little diſtance, there is alſo a French fort. Sabee, the capital town of Whydah, is about four miles diſtant from the French fort, towards the north: but it was reduced to aſhes by the king of Dahomy. The town was very populous, and had daily markets, wherein many ſorts of European, as well as African commodities, were exhibited to public ſale, with a great variety of proviſions. Near the European factories was a ſpacious place, where grew a parcel of fine, tall, ſhady trees, under which the Engliſh, French, and Portugueſe governors, factors, and ſea-captains, walked, and tranſacted buſineſs every day as on an exchange. All theſe places were reduced to aſhes by the king of Dahomy's army. Adjoining to the kingdom of Whydah are ſeveral ſmall royalties, as Coto, Little and

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and Great; Popo, and Quahoe, ſituate on the Slave Coaſt. At Coto their land is flat, ſandy, and barren; but they have the palm and wild cacao-trees in tolerable plenty. Their trade is chiefly in ſlaves and fiſh. Quahoe abounds with gold, which the inhabitants carry through Aquamboe to Acra.

Dahomy country is ſituated to the north of the Slave Coaſt, and extends greatly inland. Its boundaries on the weſt, north, and eaſt, are unknown. This country is healthy, lying high, and being refreſhed with cool breezes. The trade of the natives is chiefly in ſlaves and ſome gold.

Benin Proper has part of the gulf of Guinea and the Slave Coaſt, or Ludra, on the weſt; part of Gago and Brafera on the north; Mujac and Makoko on the eaſt; and Congo on the ſouth. Its extent, from weſt to eaſt, is about ſix hundred miles; but from ſouth to north remains unaſcertained. The country abounds with wild beaſts, as elephants, tygers, leopards, boars; and with game, as harts, hares, partridges, pigeons, turtle-doves: the ſoil produces great variety of trees and plants, as orange, lemon, and eſpecially cotton-trees; pepper, but not in ſuch quantities as in the Eaſt Indies. The natives are pretty well civilized, and, if humoured in their ceremonious way of traffic, may be managed to good advantage. They are very expert in buſineſs, though tedious; which, however, they manage with ſo much civility, that none can well be angry. They ſeem very obliging to each other; but this is only external grimace, for they repoſe little confidence in their countrymen. They are jealouſly prudent, and very reſerved, eſpecially in the management of their trade, which they conduct with the utmoſt ſecrecy, leſt they ſhould be repreſented as great traders to their governors; who, upon ſuch diſcovery, would certainly accuſe them of ſome crime or other, in order to poſſeſs themſelves, though ever ſo unjuſtly, of their effects. Thoſe, therefore, who have no ſhare of the government, always pretend to be poorer than they really are, to eſcape the rapacious hands of thoſe in authority. This obliges them to a cunning ſort of civility, to avoid accuſers; and the European dealers, who will conceal their tranſactions with them, may do buſineſs to great profit. Such as have any thing of ſtock, apply themſelves to merchandize. Very few of the commonalty among the males are induſtrious, laying the burden of labour on their wives and ſlaves, whether it be tilling of ground, ſpinning of cotton, weaving

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weaving of cloth, or any other handicraft employ; yet there are but few manual arts, besides weaving, practised or understood amongst them: the chief workmen are smiths, carpenters, or leather-dressers; but all their workmanship is but mean, for want of proper instruction. Benin, which gives name to the empire, and is the king's residence, is situate about sixty miles from Agatton, a town at the entrance of the river Formosa, near the sea. Continual markets are kept in this city of cattle, cotton, elephant's teeth, and European wares. Those who attend the court are rich, but do not concern themselves with trade, agriculture, or any thing else, leaving all their affairs to their wives, who go to all the circumjacent villages, to trade in all sorts of merchandizes, and are obliged to bring the greatest part of their gains to their husbands. All the male slaves here are foreigners, for the inhabitants cannot be sold for slaves, and only bear the name of the king's slaves; nor is it allowed to export any male slaves that are sold in this country, but females may be dealt with at every one's pleasure.

Awerri is about twenty leagues from Benin to the south, and is the capital of the kingdom of the same name, whose king is independent of the king of Benin.

Areba, a common trading place for the Europeans, is situate above fifty miles higher up than the mouth of the river Formosa. So far ships may conveniently come in their passage, sailing by a great variety of the branches of that river, besides creeks. Here formerly were two factories, one of which belonged to the English, the other to the Dutch; but the English have now no fort or factory, having traded here but very little for several years past.

Agatton has several circumjacent villages, whose inhabitants resort to it at every considerable market, which is held for five days.

At Cape Formosa the trade consists in elephant's teeth, wax, and honey.

Lower Guinea. Congo, or Lower Guinea, has Upper Guinea, or the kingdom of Benin, on the north; the Ethiopic Ocean on the west; the kingdom of Mataman, reckoned part of Caffraria, on the south; but its boundaries east and north-east are not well known. The extent of this country from Cape Lopo, in the first degree of south latitude, to Cape Negro, 23 deg. 30 min. of the same latitude, is about 16 deg. 30 min. or about nine hundred and ninety English miles; how far it extends eastward is not known. The country is watered with many rivers, and would be very

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very fruitful, if better cultivated; but nothing can conquer the lazineſs of the Negroes, who, for the moſt part, chuſe rather to live in want, than give themſelves the trouble to get a comfortable livelihood. The mountains abound with the moſt precious metals, as gold, ſilver, and copper; but none but the iron mines are worked, chiefly for the purpoſe of making arms. Congo is commonly divided into Loango, Congo Proper, Angola, and Benguela. Angola ſeems to be under the beſt regulation, being governed, eſpecially a good part of the coaſt, by the Portugueſe. The number of ſlaves here is prodigious; the Portugueſe Jeſuits alone, who perform the office of curates in the country, are ſaid to have upwards of twelve thouſand ſlaves at Loango, which is the uſual reſidence of the Roman Catholic biſhop. However, theſe ſlaves are not found ſo ſerviceable as from other parts of Guinea, being naturally addicted to lazineſs, which ſeldom or ever can be conquered by any ſort of treatment. The inland parts of Benguela are little known; but along the ſea-coaſt are ſeveral places with which the Europeans are better acquainted, particularly the Portugueſe, who are here pretty numerous, and carry on a good trade in fine linen and cotton cloths, gum, gunpowder, ſlaves, ſome gold, and ivory.

Origin and ſtate of the Engliſh trade on the coaſt of Africa.

The Portugueſe being the firſt that diſcovered the coaſt of Africa, they built one fort on the iſland of Arguin, on the north coaſt; another called St. George del Mina, on the Gold Coaſt; and a third at a place called Loango St. Paul's, on the coaſt of Angola, to the ſouthward of the equinoctial line. By virtue of theſe poſſeſſions, they not only claimed, and for many years enjoyed, the right in and to all the ſaid lands and countries, but likewiſe ſeized and confiſcated the ſhips of all nations, as often as they found any of them trading on any part of the ſaid coaſt.

About the latter end of the reign of king Edward VI. ſome London merchants fitted out the firſt Engliſh ſhips that ever traded to Guinea; and in the reign of queen Mary, and for the firſt ten or twelve years of queen Elizabeth, ſundry other private ſhips were fitted out for the ſame parts; but the Engliſh not having as yet any ſettlements or plantations in the Weſt Indies, and conſequently no occaſion for Negroes, ſuch ſhips traded only for gold, elephants teeth, and malaguetta; and all ſuch voyages were undertaken and performed at the hazard of loſing the

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the ships and cargoes, if they fell into the hands of the Portuguese, without the least ground to hope for any redress or satisfaction for the same.

Queen Elizabeth, in the 30th year of her reign, being then at war with Spain and Portugal, erected a company for the better discovering and carrying on a trade from the northernmost part of the river Senegal, and from and within that river, all along that coast, unto the southernmost part of the river Gambia, and within the same; and gave and granted unto them the whole and sole trade in, to, and from the said river and countries, for a certain term of years; with prohibition to all others her subjects to trade to the same places, on pain of forfeiture of ships and goods: and these were the first English merchants that ever traded to the coast of Guinea, by and under the authority of the crown of England.

In the reigns of the kings James and Charles I. and during the time of the usurpation, several persons were encouraged by public authority, to trade to other parts of Africa, and to take such measures for the better carrying on and improving the same, as they should judge most proper. In pursuance whereof, they built one fort at a place called Cormantine, on the Gold Coast, and another on the river Gambia, on the north coast; and these were the only places of any consequence which the English were in possession of at the Restoration.

King Charles II. soon after his restoration, being made acquainted with the dangerous and precarious state and condition to which the trade of his subjects in those parts was reduced; and having likewise received many complaints touching the interruptions given to, and depredations committed upon, the ships of this nation, by the Dutch West India company on the coast of Africa, it became necessary to consider not only of a proper method for protecting and securing the said trade for the future, but likewise how and in what manner reparation might be obtained for such damages and depredations. The result was the institution of the company of Royal Adventurers of England trading into Africa, by letters patent under the great seal of England, bearing date the 10th of January, 1662. But this company, though they kept their footing in Africa, yet, by reason of the consequences of the wars with the Dutch, which the nation was then obliged to engage in, they had so many difficulties to struggle with, that they consented to surrender their charter to the crown. This was in consideration of a certain sum of money, to be paid

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paid unto them by another new company, then intended to be eſtabliſhed. The terms of the ſurrender being accepted, his majeſty eſtabliſhed and incorporated a new Royal African company, by his letters patent under the great ſeal of England, bearing date the 27th of September, 1672; and granted unto them, all and ſingular, the lands, countries, havens, roads, rivers, and other places in Africa, from the port of Sallee, in South Barbary, to the Cape of Good Hope, for and during the term of one thouſand years; with the ſole and entire trade into theſe countries; and a prohibition to all his other ſubjects to viſit or frequent the ſame, without the licence and conſent of the ſaid company: and alſo, with ſuch other powers and privileges, as were then judged proper and neceſſary, for enabling and encouraging them to undertake ſo hazardous and chargeable a work.

This new company met with all poſſible oppoſition from the French and Dutch, and ſuſtained particularly ſeveral conſiderable loſſes by means of the wars with the French in the reign of king William III. inſomuch that the parliament in 1697, taking the trade to Africa into their conſideration, thought fit, as a farther means of enlarging and improving the ſame, to lay it open to all his majeſty's ſubjects for thirteen years; and in regard that the Royal African company of England had been at the charge of building and maintaining a conſiderable number of forts and caſtles on the ſaid coaſt, which the parliament likewiſe judged neceſſary to be kept up and maintained in future, for the preſervation and better carrying on the ſaid trade, they were farther pleaſed to impoſe a duty of ten per cent. ad valorem, on all goods and merchandize exported to Africa, during the ſaid term, to be anſwered and paid to the ſaid company for enabling them to keep and maintain their forts and caſtles.

This act continued in force from the 24th of June, 1698, to the 24th of June, 1712; in which time the charges the company were at in maintaining their forts and caſtles, amounted, at a medium, to about twenty thouſand pounds per annum, and in fourteen years, to two hundred and eighty thouſand pounds in the whole. The duty which the ſeparate traders paid in the ſame time amounted, in the whole, to ſeventy-three thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-five pounds ten ſhillings and ſix pence halfpenny, and no more; and ten per cent. upon the

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company's own exports for the ſame time, amounted to the ſum of thirty-ſix thouſand three hundred and eighty-ſeven pounds thirteen ſhillings and one penny halfpenny. From whence it appears, that, even while that act continued in force, the total of the ten per cent. duty came very much ſhort of half the charges and expences which the company were at in keeping and maintaining their forts and caſtles. Under theſe difficulties, and by the extravagant riſe in the prices of Negroes at Anamaboe, and other places on the coaſt, and by the decay of the gold trade which enſued thereupon, the proprietors of the company were for many years obliged either to raiſe ſundry great ſums of money for maintaining their forts and caſtles, without receiving any profit from the trade in return for the ſame; or to run the riſk not only of loſing all the money which they had, from time to time, raiſed and expended for ſupporting their own property, but of becoming acceſſaries to the entire loſs of the trade of Africa, and conſequently, by relinquiſhing and abandonding their forts and caſtles, to be ſeized and poſſeſſed by ſuch foreign nations as were long watching for an opportunity to get them into their hands. This being the caſe with regard to the company, and it being the ſenſe of the nation, that the trade to Africa ſhould continue free and open to all his majeſty's ſubjects, the only thing that remained to be conſidered was, whether or no forts and caſtles were neceſſary to be kept up and maintained for the preſervation of the ſaid trade to this kingdom; and if they were neceſſary for that purpoſe, who, upon the footing of a trade ſtill free and open, ought in juſtice and reaſon to bear and defray the charges of them.

As there was no reaſon for the company's being obliged to maintain the forts and caſtles at their own ſole coſt and charge, they petitioned the parliament, in 1730, and obtained ten thouſand pounds, to enable them to ſupport their forts and ſettlements. The ſum was annually continued to them, except two or three years interruption, till the laſt change made in the ſtate of this company, by an act of parliament of the year 1751. By this act the company were diveſted of their charter, and after the 10th of April, 1752, ceaſed to be a corporation, and their forts, caſtles, and all other their poſſeſſions in Africa, were veſted in a new company of merchants; and, in conſequence of the trade to Africa being, by virtue of the ſaid act, and that alſo of the 23d of king George II. made free and open

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open to all his majesty's subjects, the parliament allow this company ten thousand pounds per annum, for the support of the forts and castles, for the public service.

The African trade, as may be known from the premises, consists of but three capital articles: slaves, ivory, and gold; a very beneficial and advantageous commerce, especially as it was once carried on, when these were all purchased at low rates from the Negroes; and even those low rates paid in trifles and toys, such as knives, scissars, kettles, glass-beads, and cowries, things of little value; but even this part of the trade is greatly declined in profit, since by the strife and envy among the traders, particularly between our late Royal African company and the separate traders, we have had the folly to instruct the Negroes in the value of their own goods, and of the cheapness of ours; endeavouring to supplant one another, by underselling and overbidding, by which we have taught the Negroes to supplant both, by holding up the price of their own productions, and running down the rates of what we carry them for sale. Thus that gainful commerce, once superior to all the trades in the world, which carried out the meanest of all exportations, and brought home the richest, is sinking daily, and we are sometimes said to buy even the gold too dear. But all this while there is not the least use made of the land; the fruitful soil lies waste; a vast extended country, pleasant vallies, the banks of charming rivers, spacious plains, capable of improvement and cultivation to infinite advantage, remain barren and untouched. But there are now some hopes that these advantages will be no longer neglected, by the opening to a more extensive commerce that has been made for us in the definitive treaty of peace 1763, and particularly by the cession of Senegal, of which, with the country of Nigritia it belongs to, we are now going to give some account.

Nigritia.

Nigritia, or Negroland, a country in Africa, lies between eighteen degrees west, and fifteen degrees east longitude; and between ten and twenty degrees of north latitude, the great river Niger running through it from east to west. It is bounded by Zaara, or the desart, on the north, by unknown countries on the east, by Guinea on the south, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the west. The Europeans have several settlements on the branches of the river Niger, especially near their mouths. A great many nations inhabit the banks of the Niger, of different lan-

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guages, and independent on each other. The country is fruitful, abounding in rice, Guinea grain, and Indian corn, where it is cultivated; cattle are not wanting; but there is abundance of cocoa-nuts, plantains, pulse, palm-trees, and tropical fruits.

Niger and Sanaga rivers.

The Niger and Sanaga rivers are esteemed by the most accurate geographers to be the same, or at least the Sanaga to be a part of the Niger. Europeans have been able to trace the main river but part of the way, beyond which they know nothing of its course, but what is learned from the Mandingo Negroes, who, among all the blacks, are the most addicted to travelling and traffic, but are neither expert enough in their observations, nor have gone far enough to know any thing of its real source, since they place it no higher, according to Labat, than the lake Maberia, in the kingdom of Tombut, which is little more than half way to that of the Nile. Others, with Labat, have stretched its course back eastward, to the lake Bournow, which lies under the 18th degree of latitude, and 19th of east longitude, and fix its spring-head there; it being difficult to trace it farther, on account of the dangers of such an attempt from the supposed barrenness of the country, but rather from the savage disposition of the inhabitants, who live beyond it; and who can never be civilized till the Europeans take wise and honest measures for that purpose. It is certain, however, that the Niger or Sanaga is a very large and considerable river, and of very great extent in its course, even though we should trace its spring-head no farther than the lake Bournow. But if we suppose it to spring from the same head with the Nile, it will then cross almost the whole country of Africa where it is widest, and will have a course of near fifty degrees from east to west, exclusive of its windings. The entrance into it is narrow and somewhat difficult, by reason of its immoveable bar and sandy shoals, as well as the several islands that are at the mouth of it, and the several canals and marshes that clog it: but after sailing up eight or ten leagues, it is found broad and deep, and fit to carry large vessels; and, except about five or six leagues on each side above the mouth, which is a sandy and barren ground, in all the rest, as far as the lake Maberia, the banks are covered with stately fruit-trees and villages, and the country well watered and very fertile for a great way; for, like the Nile, it overflows it for many leagues, and enriches the land to a great degree, and would do so still more, if the inhabitants were as expert

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and induſtrious in making all the advantages they could of it; but this is not the caſe, though the people on both ſides live as near to it as they can, and feed great herds of cattle, and ſow large and ſmall millet in great quantities, and with great increaſe.

As the Niger receives many conſiderable rivers in its courſe, which ſwell it high enough to be able at all times to carry veſſels of forty or fifty tons, ſo it ſplits itſelf into ſeveral branches, which, uniting again, form very large and fertile iſlands, well filled with towns, villages, and inhabitants.

Iſland of Senegal.

Towards the coaſt, the iſland of Senegal is ſituated in the river Sanaga, 16 degrees 15 min. north latitude, about fifteen miles from its mouth. It is about one mile and a quarter in length, from north to ſouth; and almoſt half a mile in breadth, from eaſt to weſt. It is compoſed of a bed of looſe ſand, productive of nothing but what is forced with art and the richeſt manure; notwithſtanding which, it contains three thouſand inhabitants, whoſe principal food is fiſh and maize. This ſort of corn grows in great plenty, almoſt all over the whole country. It may ſeem ſurpriſing, that a part of the world, ſo very unhealthy as this, ſhould yet be ſo populous; but the wonder will ceaſe when we come to underſtand, that the greateſt pride among the men conſiſts in the number of their wives; ſo that every one takes as many as he is able to maintain; ſome ſix, others eight, and others twelve at a time.

Face of the adjacent country.

To the north-eaſt, eaſt, and ſouth-eaſt of this iſland, lies a prodigious large and low country, covered with marſhes and woods. Much the greateſt part of it is utterly unknown to us. It is through this country that the large branches of the Niger empty themſelves into the ſea, particularly the Sanaga, Gambia, and Sherbro. During the rainy months, which begin in July, and continue till October, they lay the whole flat country under water; and, indeed, the very ſudden riſe of theſe rivers is incredible to perſons who have never been within the tropics, and are unacquainted with the violent rains that fall there. At Galam, nine hundred miles from the mouth of the river Sanaga, the waters riſe a hundred and fifty feet perpendicular from the bed of the river. At the iſland of Senegal, the river riſes gradually during the rainy ſeaſon, above twenty feet perpendicular over part of that flat coaſt, which, of itſelf alone, ſo freſhens the water, that ſhips lying at anchor at the diſtance of three leagues from its

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mouth, generally make uſe of it, and fill their water there for the voyage home. When the rains are at an end, which uſually happens in October, the intenſe heat of the ſun ſoon dries up thoſe waters which lie on the higher parts, and the remainder form lakes of ſtagnated waters, in which are found all ſorts of dead animals. Theſe waters every day decreaſe, till at laſt they are quite exhaled, and then the effluvia that ariſe are almoſt inſupportable. At this ſeaſon the winds blow ſo very hot from off the land, that they may well be compared to the heat proceeding from the mouth of an oven, and they bring with them a ſmell that is quite intolerable. Their effects upon wolves, tigers, lions, and other wild beaſts, are ſuch, that they are ſeen to reſort to the river, keeping their body under water, and only their ſnout above it, for the advantage of breathing. The birds likewiſe are ſeen to ſoar to an immenſe height, and to fly a great way over the ſea, where they continue till the wind changes and comes from the weſt.

Gum Senega. One of the moſt conſiderable articles of commerce, and the chief inducement to Europeans for ſettling here, is the gum ſenega, ſo denominated from the river Senegal, the foreſts bordering upon that river abounding with this gum. It greatly reſembles the gum arabic, but its granules are uſually larger, of an oval form, the ſurface very rough, and the inner ſubſtance bright where broken. It is very hard, but not tough, conſiderably heavy, and of an extremely fine and even texture. When broke the colour is frequently of a pale brown, but, like gum arabic, ſometimes yelloviſh, reddiſh, or whitiſh. Dyers and other artificers conſume the greateſt quantities of this gum. The French, when they were in poſſeſſion of this part of the African coaſt, from Cape Blanco to the river Gambia, extending along the ſhore about four hundred miles, found the gum ſenega ſo uſeful in their ſilk and linen manufactures, that they engroſſed the whole trade of it to themſelves, and occaſionally prohibited its exportation. And hence it is that this country, quite unhealthy as it is, and thoſe roads ſo dangerous for ſhipping, have nevertheleſs been eagerly contended for by the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and Portugueſe. All ſtrove to ſettle here in their turns, being the only place for the gum trade, by being maſters of the Senegal rivers; a trade which ſeems a light matter in itſelf, but is, in effect, very conſiderable, whether we regard the price the natives ſell the gum for, which is very moderate,

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moderate, or, laſtly, the quantity of European merchandizes it takes off ready wrought, the vent of which makes manufactures ſpread, money circulate, and ſo finds work for abundance of hands, which is the main end of commerce.

Before we cloſe our account of this part of Africa, it will not be amiſs to take notice of a tree of a new genus, which grows in Senegal, which may be juſtly reputed the largeſt vegetable production in nature, and therefore, by its great magnitude, a more ſingular and remarkable phenomenon than all the hiſtories of botany, or perhaps of the world have yet produced.

Deſcription of the baobab.

The real name of this tree is baobab; the Oualofs, natives of the country, call it goui, and its fruit boui; and the French know it by the name of calabaſſier, or calibaſh-tree, and call its fruit pain de ſinge, or *monkies bread.* The baobab cannot grow out of a very hot climate; it delights in a ſandy and moiſt ſoil, eſpecially if this ſoil is free from ſtones that might hurt its roots; for the leaſt ſcratch they receive is ſoon followed by a caries communicating itſelf to the trunk of the tree, and cauſing it infallibly to periſh.

The trunk of this ſingular tree is not very high: M. Adanſon (who had lately communicated his obſervations on the baobab to the French[q] academicians) ſaw hardly any exceeding twelve or fifteen feet, from the roots to the branches; but he had ſeen ſeveral ſeventy-five and ſeventy-eight feet round, that is, from twenty-five to twenty-ſeven feet in diameter. The firſt branches extends almoſt horizontally; and being very thick and about ſixty feet in length, their own weight bends down their extremities to the ground; the center branches riſe perpendicularly, but ſo as to make a ſhelving, and the tree being thus regularly rounded, its trunk is abſolutely hidden, and it appears as an hemiſpherical maſs of verdure, of about a hundred and twenty, a hundred and thirty, or a hundred and forty feet in diameter.

The roots of the baobab are anſwerable to its ſize in all reſpects; to the branches above, there is a correſpondent number of radical branches below. That of the middle forms a pivot that ſtrikes very deep into the earth, but the reſt ſpread towards the ſurface. M. Adanſon had ſeen one laid open by a current of water, in the extent of upwards a hundred and ten feet; and it was eaſy to judge

[q] Printed in their Memoirs for the year 1761.

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by its bulk, that what ſtill remained under ground was at leaſt forty or fifty feet long; and yet this tree, compared with others, was but of middling bulk.

The bark of the trunk is greyiſh, ſmooth, and, as it were, unctuous to the touch; ſtripping it off, the inſide appears of a green, pricked with red; the thickneſs is about eight or nine lines. The bark of the younger branches is green and thinly diſſeminated with hairs: the wood of the tree is very ſoft and white.

The leaves are about five inches long and two broad, and pointed at both extremities, pretty thick, of a ſprightly green on the upper ſide, and pale underneath; and adhering three, five, or ſeven, but moſt commonly ſeven, in the manner of a fan, on a common pedicle, much like thoſe of the cheſnut-tree; they only grow on the young branches, whereon the pedicles are alternately placed. The bloſſoms or flowers are in proportion to the tree, not yielding in magnitude to the largeſt we know of. They form, when ſtill in the bud, a globe of about three inches diameter, and when blown are four inches long and ſix broad. After the falling of the petals and the ſtamina, the ovarium, as it ripens, becomes an oblong fruit, pointed at both extremities, fifteen or eighteen feet long, and five or ſix broad, clothed with a kind of greeniſh down, under which is found a ligneous, hard, almoſt black rind or peel, and marked with twelve or fourteen furrows, dividing it lengthwiſe into ribs. This fruit hangs from the tree by a pedicle of about two feet in length, and contains a kind of pulp or whitiſh ſubſtance, ſpungy, and full of fouriſh water. The pulp ſeems to make but one maſs, when the fruit is new; but, in drying, ſhrinks and divides of itſelf into a great number of bodies, with ſeveral facets, each containing a brown ſhining ſeed, nearly of the figure of a kidney-bean, five lines in length and three in breadth; and the pulp that ſurrounds them is eaſily reduced into a powder, brought hither from the Levant, and known for a long time by the very improper name of terra ſigillata of Lemnos, becauſe indeed the Mandingues carry it to the Arabs, who afterwards diſtribute it in Egypt, and through all the eaſtern parts of the Mediterranean. Proſper Alpinus was very ſenſible that this powder was vegetable; but certainly one might not be aware of ſeeking in Senegal, a drug that is imported from the Archipelago.

M. Adanſon believes that the baobab may be naturally claſſed with the malvaceous plants that have but one calix.

This

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This tree cannot be tranſplanted neither when it begins to riſe, nor when it is ten years old, as its root would almoſt infallibly periſh. The beſt plant is that which is from ſix months to two years old; branches ſometimes taken from a ſlip, but they frequently fail; and the progreſs even of thoſe that do is always ſlower than that of the plant riſing from the ſeed. Beſides the caries that attacks the trunk of the tree when its roots are hurt, it is alſo ſubject to another malady, more rare indeed, but not leſs fatal to it. This is a kind of mouldineſs that gets into the whole ligneous body, and which, without changing the texture of its fibres, ſoftens it to the degree of its having no more conſiſtence than the ordinary pith of trees; then it becomes incapable of reſiſting the ordinary blaſts of wind, and this monſtrous trunk is broke down by the leaſt ſtorm. M. Adanſon had ſeen one in this condition; it was inhabited by a great number of the grubs of beetles and chafers: they did not, however, ſeem as if they had contributed to the diſtempered ſtate of the tree; but their eggs might have been introduced into the wood on growing ſoft, the ſame way as an infinity of inſects introduce their eggs into the willow-tree, when it undergoes a ſimilar ſtate of ſoftneſs, though they do not attack it when it is ſound.

The real country of the baobab is Africa, and particularly the weſtern coaſt of that part which extends from the Niger to the kingdom of Benin. It is not found in the catalogues of the Aſiatic plants, nor in thoſe of America; yet might be actually in ſome of the climates of thoſe two parts of the world, which reſemble the part of Africa that produces it; but the tree does not grow there ſpontaneouſly. The Negroe ſlaves yearly tranſported from Africa into the American colonies, fail not to carry with them a little bundle of ſeeds, which they preſume will be of ſervice to them, and among theſe are always ſome ſeed of the baobab. It is probably to this tranſportation that are or will be owing the baobabs found there, ſuch as that M. de Chanvallon, a correſpondent of the French academy, ſays he had ſeen at Martinico, and which indeed was but young. They may perhaps be naturalized to the climate, but this will not be their firſt origin, and none for a long time will be ſeen equal in magnitude to thoſe of the coaſt of Africa; for though a very tender wood, they take up a great time in growing to this enormous bulk.

M. Adanſon has carefully collected all the facts he believed could give him any inlight in regard to this article;

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he had seen two of these trees in one of the Magellan isles, on the bark of which were cut European names and dates, whereof some were later than 1600, others were as far back as 1555, and had been probably the work of those who accompanied Thevenot in his voyage to the Terra Australis; for, he says himself, he had seen baobabs in that place; others, in fine, appear prior to 1500; but these might be questioned, the characters of the names being about six inches high, and the names taking up two feet in length, that is, somewhat less than the eighth part of the circumference of the tree. Supposing even that these characters had been cut in the early youth of the tree, it would follow that, if in two hundred years it grew six feet in diameter, it would require upwards of eight centuries to be twenty-five feet in diameter, supposing it always grew equally; but this supposition can hardly be considered as true; for M. Adanson observed that the growth of this tree, very rapid in the first years succeeding its birth, diminishes afterwards very considerably; and though the proportion of this diminution is not well known, it might be thought, he fancies, with good reason, that the latter growth of the baobab proceeds with an extreme slowness, and that such of those trees which have arrived at the above mentioned bulk might have first appeared out of the earth not long after the time of the universal deluge; but what is very deserving of notice is, that those raised elsewhere carefully, pursuant to the temperature of their climate, do not receive at most but the fifth part of the increase they have at Senegal in the same time; an observation which should prove, if it was possible to doubt of it, that artificial heat, in regard to exotics, can be but a very imperfect substitute to that which they experience in their natural climate.

The baobab, as all the other plants of the malvaceous tribe, has an emollient virtue, capable of maintaining in the body an abundant transpiration, and of opposing the too great heat of the blood. The Negroes dry its leaves in the shade, and reduce them into a powder they call lalo, which they mix with their aliments, not for giving them a relish, for the lalo has scarce any taste, but for obtaining the just mentioned effect. M. Adanson himself experienced the same virtue; and the decoction of these leaves preserved him and a French officer, who confined himself to this regimen, from the heat of urine and hot fevers, which usually attack foreigners at Senegal during the month of September, and which raged still more furiously

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rioufly in 1751, than they had for ſeveral years paſt. The freſh or newly gathered fruit of this tree is not leſs uſeful than its leaves; its pulp is eaten, which is ſubacid and agreeable enough, and in mixing its juice with water and a little ſugar, a liquor is made, attended with the beſt effects in all hot affections, and in putrid or peſtilential fevers; laſtly, when the fruit is ſpoiled, the Negroes make an excellent ſoap of it, by burning it, and mixing its aſhes with the oil of the palm-tree that begins to be rancid.

The Negroes make ſtill a very ſingular uſe of this monſtrous tree. We have ſaid that it was ſubject to a caries, which often hollows its trunk; they enlarge thoſe cavities, and make a ſort of chambers, where they hang the dead bodies of thoſe they are not willing to grant the honours of burial to; thoſe bodies dry there perfectly, and become real mummies, without any other preparation. The greateſt number of the bodies ſo dried is of the Guiriots: theſe people may be compared to the ancient bards and jugglers, ſo famous among our anceſtors. They are poets and muſicians, and have a kind of inſpection over feaſts and dances. Their number is always pretty conſiderable at the courts of the Negroe kings, whom they divert and flatter to an extravagant degree in their poetical compoſitions. This kind of ſuperiority of talents makes them dreaded by the Negroes during their life; they attribute it to ſomething ſupernatural; but inſtead of making as the ancient Greeks, their poets the children of the Gods, they regard them, on the contrary, as ſorcerers and miniſters of the devil, and believe that in that quality they ſhould draw down malediction on the earth, or even on the waters which might receive their bodies; it is therefore that they hide and dry them in the hollow trunks of the baobab.

Homer relates, that Ulyſſes had made for himſelf at Ithaca, a complete bedſtead of the trunk of an olive-tree, ſupported on its roots, about which he had afterwards built a chamber. If this prince had in the precinct of his palace a baobab-tree, he might have extended the ſingularity ſtill farther, and procured himſelf a chamber and all its furniture cut in the ſame piece of wood.

The baobab was never deſcribed properly, either as to leaves, fruit, or flowers, before M. Adanſon; and as Senegal is now one of our poſſeſſions on the coaſt of Africa, the produce of this tree may in a great meaſure become an important object of our commerce.

SECT.

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SECT. V.

Of Barbary, Biledulgerid, Zaara or the Deſert, and the African Iſlands.

Boundaries and extent of Barbary.

THE great tract of Barbary, in general, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean ſea, which divides it from Europe; on the eaſt, by Egypt; on the ſouth, by Zaara, or the Deſert; and on the weſt by the Atlantic, or Weſtern Ocean. Its utmoſt extent from eaſt to weſt, that is, from Cape None, on the moſt weſtern coaſt of Morocco, to the confines of Egypt, is almoſt thirty-ſeven degrees, that is, from 10 to 26 ½ deg. of eaſtern longitude, or about two thouſand two hundred miles. As for its breadth from north to ſouth it is very unequal; in ſome parts not above ſix or ſeven degrees, and where wideſt, as from Cape None to Tangier, not above ten degrees; but we muſt obſerve, that moſt geographers have given it a much greater extent both ways; ſome of them as far as four thouſand miles in length and twelve hundred in breadth; which can only be meant by including the creeks and windings, which are too precarious and unknown to be depended upon.

Soil, produce, commodities, &c.

Barbary is, next to Egypt, the moſt fruitful, trading, and populous part of Africa. The ſoil abounds with plenty and variety of grain and fruits, eſpecially citrons, oranges, dates, figs, olives, grapes, pomegranates, and almonds; in all which the inhabitants drive a conſiderable trade, as well as in coral, Morocco leather, Barbary horſes, and other commodities. The air is temperate, though hot, being refreſhed by conſtant breezes from the Mediterranean.

Hiſtory of the ſtates on the coaſt of Barbary.

The coaſt of Barbary was probably firſt planted by the Egyptians. The Phœnicians afterwards ſent colonies thither, and built Utica and Carthage. The Carthaginians ſoon became powerful and wealthy by trade; and finding the country divided into a great many little kingdoms and ſtates, either ſubdued or made the princes on that coaſt their tributaries, who being weary of their yoke, were glad of the opportunity of aſſiſting the Romans in ſubduing Carthage. The Romans remained ſovereigns of the coaſt of Barbary, until the Vandals, in the fifth century, reduced it under their dominion.

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The Roman, or rather the Grecian emperors, having ſome time after recovered the coaſt of Barbary from the Vandals, it remained under their dominion till the Saracen caliphs, the ſucceſſors of Mohammed, made an entire conqueſt of all the north of Africa in the ſeventh century, and divided the country among their chiefs, of whom the ſovereign of Morocco was the moſt conſiderable, poſſeſſing the north-weſt part of that country, which, in the Roman diviſion obtained the name of Mauritania Tingitana, from Tingis, or Tangir, the capital, and is now ſtyled the empire of Morocco, comprehending the kingdoms or provinces of Fez and Morocco. The emperors of theſe territories are almoſt always at war with the Spaniards and Portugueſe. In the eighth century their anceſtors made a conqueſt of the greateſt part of Spain; but after the loſs of Granada, which happened about the year 1492, they were diſpoſſeſſed of this country; and Ferdinand and Iſabella, who were then upon the throne of Spain, obliged them to renounce their religion, or tranſport themſelves to the coaſt of Africa. Thoſe who made choice of the alternative of going into exile, to revenge themſelves on the Spaniards, and ſupply their neceſſities, confederated with the Mohammedan princes on the coaſt of Barbary, and, having fitted out little fleets of cruiſing veſſels, took all the Spaniſh merchant ſhips they met with at ſea, and being well acquainted with the country, landed in Spain, and brought away multitudes of Spaniards, and made ſlaves of them. The Spaniards hereupon aſſembled a fleet of men of war, invaded Barbary, and having taken Oran, and many other places on the coaſt of Algier, were in a fair way of making an entire conqueſt of that country. In this diſtreſs the African princes applied to that famous Turkiſh rover, Barbaroſſa, deſiring his aſſiſtance againſt the Chriſtians. He very readily complied with their requeſt, but had no ſooner repulſed their enemies, than he uſurped the government of Algiers, and treated the people who called him in as ſlaves; as his brother Heyradin Barbaroſſa afterwards did the people of Tunis; and a third obtained the government of Tripoli by the like means. In theſe uſurpations they were ſupported by the grand ſignior, who claimed the ſovereignty of the whole coaſt, and for ſome time they were eſteemed the ſubjects of Turkey, and governed by Turkiſh baſhas or viceroys; but each of theſe ſtates, or rather the military men, at length took upon them to elect a ſovereign out of their own body, and rendered

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dered themſelves independent of the Turkiſh empire. The grand ſignior has not now ſo much as a baſha or officer at Algiers; but the dey acts as an abſolute prince, and is only liable to be depoſed by the ſoldiery that advanced him. At Tunis and Tripoli he has ſtill baſhas, who are ſome check upon the deys, and have a ſmall tribute paid them. All of them, however, in caſe of emergency, claim the protection of the Ottoman court, and they ſtill continue to prey upon the Spaniards, having never been at peace with them ſince the loſs of Granada. They make prize alſo of all other Chriſtian ſhips that have Spaniſh goods or paſſengers on board, and, indeed, of all others that are not at peace with them. The Turks of Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, are an abandoned race, conſiſting of pirates, banditti, and the very refuſe of Turkey, who have been forced to leave their ſeveral countries to avoid the puniſhment of their crimes.

Morocco emp.re.

The empire of Morocco, the moſt conſiderable on this coaſts, is bounded by the Mediterranean ſea on the north; by the river Fulvia, which divides it from Algier, on the eaſt; by Biledulgerid on the ſouth; and by the Atlantic Ocean on the weſt; being about five hundred miles long and two hundred broad. It is a fine country, conſiſting of mountains and vaſt extended plains, none of them unfruitful; of the mountains, thoſe of Atlas are the chief, extending from Algier in the eaſt to the ocean in the weſt, which from them has obtained the name of the Atlantic Ocean. Fez, the capital, ſo called from the kingdom of the ſame name, is computed to have about three hundred thouſand inhabitants. The houſes, as well as ſtreets, ſwarm with men of all profeſſions, and with merchants of all ſorts, this place being eſteemed the general magazine of Barbary, whither all European goods are brought and exchanged, and ſent into the other provinces, to be exchanged for thoſe of the country. The Jews, who are here above five thouſand, are the chief brokers, eſpecially between the Chriſtians and Mohammedans. The emperor has a palace at Fez, but his chief reſidence is at Mequinez, about thirty miles weſt of Fez; ſituate in a much more deſirable country, ſurrounded by fine parks and olive-grounds, and containing much about the ſame number of inhabitants as Fez. There are no ſhips of war in this empire, except ſome ſmall piratical veſſels, commonly called Sallee rovers, which are crouded with men, and ſometimes take great prizes. As for merchant ſhips, or foreign trade, the ſubjects carry on none on their own

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own bottoms. And, indeed, it seems to be a happiness, that all the Morocco dominions do not afford one tolerable harbour; that of Sallee, which is the best, being almost dry at low, and not twelve feet deep at high-water, besides a very inconvenient bar. Better ports might be an inducement to their making a figure at sea, and becoming a greater annoyance; but no flourishing trade or improvement can be carried on under a government so despotic, oppressive, and rapacious. The land is judged capable of producing a hundred times more than the inhabitants consume, yielding three crops a year; yet, except within three leagues of a town, it has no proprietor. Those who have a little money are afraid to let it out upon interest, lest they should be reputed wealthy, and, consequently, become a prey; they, therefore, bury it with any furniture of value, nothing being seen in their houses but a mat or two to lie on, and a few ordinary things. Their inland trade consists of caravans, two of which set out every year from Fez, to Mecca and Medina, carrying woollen manufactures, indigo, cochineal, skins, and ostrich feathers. They likewise send caravans to Guinea every year, consisting of many thousand camels. The tyranny of the government is said to be the motive of the Arabs continuing a wandering life, lest, by living in fixed habitations, they should forfeit all property and liberty by the rapaciousness of the officers. The emperor has a tenth of all corn, cattle, fruits, and produce of the soil; likewise, the tenth of prizes, and of all the captives. His whole revenue, ordinaries and extraordinaries, is computed at five hundred quintals of silver, each worth three hundred and eighty five pounds sterling; if the revenue of a monarch can be stated, who frequently confirms his absolute prerogative, by the ruin and death of the most dignified persons in his dominions. He has forty thousand Negroes in his army, and as many Moors, horse and foot. The Moors, or natives of the country, are of the same complexion as the Spaniards on the opposite shores; those that are exposed to the air a little tawny, but the rest as fair as Europeans.

Algiers.

Algiers, the next powerful state on this coast, is bounded on the east by Tunis, on the west by the kingdom of Fez, on the north by the Mediterranean, and on the south by the deserts of Biledulgerid. It enjoys a constant verdure; for in February the leaves begin to bud, and in April they shew their fruit in full growth, which are mostly ripe by May. The grapes are fit to gather in June; and the

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the figs, peaches, nectarines, olives, nuts, &c. in Auguſt. The ſoil is various, many parts being dry, hot, and barren; others fertile in corn and fruit; and others in excellent paſture-grounds. The towns, even along the ſea-coaſts, are but few and thinly peopled, except the metropolis. The Algerines are very great pirates, and reckoned the moſt dangerous of all Africa. They are extremely avaricious and cruel to thoſe that fall into their hands, eſpecially to the Chriſtians. In the city of Algiers, the capital of the whole kingdom, are merchans of ſeveral nations, and ſo numerons, that they amount at leaſt to three thouſand foreign families, which have ſettled there on the account of trade, and keep about two thouſand ſhops in the two bazars of the place. The Jews, whoſe number amounts to eight thouſand, dwell together in a particular quarter, and almoſt the whole trade here paſſes through their hands. The greateſt commerce of the Algerines conſiſts in the merchandize which they obtain by the piratical plunder of the Chriſtians over the whole Mediterranean, and in part of the ocean. The Corſairs are continually bringing in prizes, with great numbers of Chriſtian ſlaves. Their marine is ſo ſtrong, that they fit out every year to the amount of twenty-three veſſels, with three or four hundred men each.

Tunis. The kingdom of Tunis is the country which was formerly the celebrated republic of Carthage. In its utmoſt extent it lay ſtretched along the coaſts upwards of one hundred and twenty leagues; but is now reduced within a very little compaſs; extending only from eaſt to weſt about ſixty leagues, and about one hundred and five from north to ſouth. Towards the weſt it is pretty fertile, being watered by ſome good rivers. Its greateſt commerce conſiſts in oil, olives, dates, ſoap, kali, or aſhes, oſtrich-feathers, camels, and horſes. The many vallies between the high mountains afford plenty of corn, fruit, and paſture. The city of Tunis is ſaid to owe moſt of its ſtrength and beauty to the Arabs, who came hither from Carthage, where they did not think themſelves ſo ſafe. It is now ſo populous, that it is computed to contain ten thouſand families, and three thouſand ſhops, where they ſell linen and woollen; and the Venetians and Genoeſe are the two European nations that drive the greateſt commerce with them. A great part of the inhabitants, both within the city and ſuburbs, are employed in the linen manufacture, which it here the fineſt in all Africa, their thread being the moſt delicate and beſt twiſted; and it is of this that they

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they weave that ſuperfine cloth, of which they make thoſe turbans called tunecis, ſo highly eſteemed by the Turks and Moors. But their moſt advantageous buſineſs is piracy, in which they ſeem to be upon a level with their neighbours, eſpecially in the number of Chriſtian ſlaves they make. The province of Suſa here is ſo called from its capital, an ancient Roman city, built upon a rock near the ſea ſide, over againſt the iſland of Pentileria, and one of the neareſt to Sicily of any of the African cities. It has a commodious large haven, where the pirates revel in ſafety; and the inhabitants, though moſtly ſeamen, are reckoned a civil and trading people. The territory is fertile in barley, figs, olives, dates, and paſture-grounds. The city is ſtrong, well walled, and is defended by a ſtrong caſtle and garriſon. It alſo drives a pretty good trade in oil, honey, wax, and eſpecially in the tunny-fiſh, which is here caught and pickled, and in great requeſt.

Tripoli. The kingdom of Tripoli has Tunis on the weſt, from which it is parted by the river Capes, which riſes out of the ſandy deſart to the ſouth, and falls into the Mediterranean. This kingdom has ſome large, trading, and populous cities on the coaſts, where, beſides ſeveral manufactures, the inhabitants carry on the piratical buſineſs to great advantage to themſelves, though to the great hazard and loſs of the European nations trading on the Mediterranean.

Deſart of Barca. On the ſouth coaſt of the Mediterranean, between Tripoli and Egypt, is ſituate the extenſive deſart of Barca, the ancient Cyrene, and formerly famed for the temple of Jupiter Ammon. It is now truly a deſart, ſcarce a town or cultivated ſpot of ground being met with in it.

Zaara, and Biledulgerid. Of the ſame nature are Zaara and a good part of Biledulgerid; both diviſions of Africa, ſituate between 20 and 30 degrees of north latitude, having Negroland on the ſouth; Morocco, and the other parts of the coaſt of Barbary, on the the north; the unknown parts of Africa, on the eaſt; and the Atlantic Ocean on the weſt. The name of Zaara implies a deſart country; and it is in effect ſo deſtitute of water and proviſions, that great part of the camels, which form the caravan that travels from Morocco to Guinea, are laden with water and neceſſaries for the ſubſiſtence of the people. Biledulgerid is the ancient Numidia, and was once tolerably fruitful, when it was poſſeſſed by an induſtrious people; but the Mohammedans, who are now maſters of it, taking no care to cultivate the ſoil, it produces little more than Zaara. It

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is, however, renowned in some measure for its considerable quantities of dates. The people who inhabit it for the most part are Arabs; they live in tents, and being acquainted with the few springs and places where forage is to be found, pitch their tents sometimes in one part of the country, and sometimes in another; but though there are scarce any towns here at present, there are some considerable ruins, which shew that the country has been better inhabited and cultivated. What is most remarkable is the change of complexion, there being scarce any blacks north of Negroland, but what have been purchased in Guinea, and carried to Morocco. There is also a change of religion as well as complexion; the people of Guinea and Negroland being for the most part pagans, and those of Biledulgerid, Morocco, and the coast of Barbary, Mohammedans.

Reflections on the piratical states of Barbary.

The Mohammedans, wherever they are established, especially those of them who partake of the genius and disposition of the Turks, have very little inclination to the arts of industry. This evidently appears in the inhabitants of those parts we have been now describing on the African sea-coast. Being a rapacious and tyrannical people, disdaining all industry and labour, neglecting all culture and improvement, it made them thieves and robbers, as naturally as idleness makes beggars; and, being trained to rapine and spoil, when they were no longer able to plunder and destroy the fruitful plains of Valentia, Granada, and Andalusia, they fell to roving upon the sea. They built ships, or rather seized them from others, and ravaged the neighbouring coasts, landing in the night, surprising, and carrying away the poor country people out of their beds into slavery. This was their first occupation, and this naturally made pirates of them: for, not being content with mere landing and plundering the sea-coasts of Spain, by degrees, being grown powerful and rich, and made bold and audacious by their success, they armed their ships, and began to attack, first the Spaniards upon the high seas, and then all the Christian nations of Europe, wherever they could find them. Thus this detestable practice of roving and robbing began. What magnitude they are since arrived to, what mischief they have brought upon the trading part of the world, how powerful they are grown, and how they are erected into states and governments, nay, into kingdoms, and, as they would be called, empires, for the kings of Fez and Morocco call themselves emperors; and how they are, to the disgrace

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diſgrace of all Chriſtian powers, treated with as ſuch, is well known from the hiſtories of thoſe nations who have been at any time embroiled with them.

The firſt Chriſtian prince, who, reſenting the inſolence of theſe barbarians, and diſdaining to make peace with them, reſolved their deſtruction, was the emperor Charles V. he was moved with a generous compaſſion for the many thouſands of miſerable Chriſtians who were, at that time, kept among them in ſlavery; and, from a benevolent principle of ſetting the Chriſtian world free from the terror of ſuch barbarians, he undertook ſingly, and without the aſſiſtance of any other nation, to fall upon them with all his power. In this war, had he been joined by the French and Engliſh, and the Hans-towns (as for the Dutch they were not then a nation), he might have cleared the country; at leaſt, he might have cleared the ſea-coaſts of the whole race, and have planted colonies of Chriſtians in all the ports, for the encouragement of commerce, and for the ſafety of all the European nations. But Francis I. king of France, his mortal and conſtant enemy, envied him the glory of the greateſt and beſt enterprize that was ever projected in Europe; an enterprize a thouſand times beyond all the cruſades and expeditions to the Holy Land, which, during one hundred and twenty years, coſt Europe, and to no purpoſe, a million of lives and immenſe treaſure. Though the emperor was aſſiſted by no one prince in Chriſtendom, the pope excepted (and his artillery would not go far in battering down ſtone-walls), yet he took the fortreſs of Goletta, and afterwards the city, and the whole kingdom of Tunis; and, had he kept poſſeſſion, it might have proved a happy fore-runner of farther conqueſts; but, miſcarrying in his attempt againſt Algiers, and a terrible ſtorm falling upon his fleet, the farther attempt was laid aſide, and the kingdom of Tunis returned to its former poſſeſſors, by which means their piracies are ſtill continued.

There ſeems, therefore, to be a neceſſity, that all the powers of Euprope, eſpecially the martime, ſhould endeavour to free themſelves from the inſolence of theſe rovers, that their ſubjects may thereby be protected in their perſons and goods from the hands of rapine and violence, their coaſts ſecured from inſults and deſcents, and their ſhips from capture on the ſea. The conqueſt could not be attended with any great difficulty, if the Engliſh, Dutch, French, and Spaniards would unite, to join their forces and fleets, and fall upon them in ſeparate bodies, and in

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ſeveral places at the ſame time. The general benefit of commerce would immediately follow, by ſettling the government of the ſea-coaſt towns in the hands and poſſeſſion of the ſeveral united powers; ſo that every one ſhould poſſeſs the leaſt, in proportion to the forces employed in the conqueſt of it; the conſequence of the ſucceſs would ſoon be ſenſibly felt by the intereſted parties; for if the quantity of productions fitted for the uſe of merchandize be ſo conſiderable as we find it to be, even now, under the indolence and ſloth of the moſt barbarous people in the world, how may we ſuppoſe all thoſe valuable things to be increaſed by the induſtry and application of the diligent Europeans, eſpecially the Engliſh, French, or Dutch. We might alſo reaſonably ſuppoſe, that the Moors, being in conſequence of ſuch a conqueſt driven up farther into the country (for we do not propoſe the rooting them out as a nation, but only the ſupplanting or removing them from a ſituation which they have juſtly forfeited by their depredations upon other nations), and being obliged to ſeek their ſubſiſtence by honeſt labour and application, would at length be induced to increaſe the product; and, as multitudes of Chriſtians would be encouraged, by the advantages of the place, to go over and ſettle upon it, the manufactures and merchandizes of Europe muſt ſoon find a great additional conſumption; and the many new ports and harbours where thoſe Chriſtian nations might ſettle, would be ſo many new markets for the ſale of thoſe manufactures, where they had little or no ſale or conſumption before. Beſides, would not the ſucceſs be delivering Europe from the depredations of powerful thieves, and their commerce and navigation from the rapine of a mercileſs crew, who are the ruin of thouſands of families, and in ſome ſenſe, the reproach of Chriſtendom. Such meaſures as theſe are far from being impracticable; they are worthy of being undertaken by the princes and powers of Europe, and would, therefore, bring infinitely more glory to the Chriſtian name, than all their inteſtine wars among each other, which are the ſcandal of Europe, and the only thing, that, at firſt, let in the Turks, and other barbarians among them.

African iſlands. To finiſh our account of Africa, ſome notice remains to be taken of its iſlands, ſome of which lie in the Eaſtern or Indian Ocean; and ſome in the Weſtern or Atlantic Ocean. We ſhall begin with the Eaſtern.

Zocotora. The firſt of any note that preſents itſelf in the Indian Ocean is Zocotora, ſituate in eaſt longitude 53°, north la-

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latitude 12°, thirty leagues eaſt of Cape Gardefoi, on the continent of Africa. It is about eighty miles long, and fifty-four broad, and has two pretty good harbours in it, where ſhips put in ſometimes when they loſe their paſſage to India, the country being plentiful, and affording ſuch fruits and plants as are uſually found within the tropics; as alſo frankincenſe, gum traganth, and aloes.

Babelmandel. Babelmandel is ſituate in eaſt longitude 44° 30′, north latitude 12°. It commands the ſtreight at the entrance of the Red Sea; and preſerves the communication between Ethiopia and Arabia; on which account it was formerly much contended for by the Ethiopians and Arabs; otherwiſe it is of very little conſequence, being a barren ſandy ſpot of earth, not five miles round.

Comorra Iſlands. The Comorra Iſlands are ſituate between 41 and 46 deg. eaſt longitude, and between 10 and 14 deg. ſouth latitude, equally diſtant from Madagaſcar, and the continent of Africa. Joanna, the chief, is about thirty miles long, and fifteen broad; and affords plenty of proviſions, and ſuch fruits as are produced between the tropics: Eaſt India ſhips bound to Bombay uſually touch here for refreſhment. The people are Negroes, of the Mohammedan religion, and entertain our ſeamen with great humanity and hoſpitality.

Mauritius. Mauritius is ſituate in eaſt longitude 56°, ſouth latitude 20°, about four hundred miles eaſt of Madagaſcar. It was ſubject to the Dutch, who named it Maurico, in honour of their ſtadtholder, but is now poſſeſſed by the French. It is of an oval form, about one hundred and fifty miles in circumference, a mountainous country, well covered with good timber of ſeveral ſorts, and watered with ſeveral rivulets which run down from the mountains. The Dutch erected ſaw-mills upon it, and from thence ſupplied their ſettlements in India with plank. This iſland was of great uſe to the Dutch before they poſſeſſed the Cape of Good Hope, having then no other place to furniſh them with refreſhments between Europe and India.

Madagaſcar. Madagaſcar, or St. Laurence, the chief of the African Iſlands, is ſituate between 43 and 51 deg. of eaſt longitude, and between 12 and 26 degrees of ſouth latitude, three hundred miles ſouth-eaſt of the continent of Africa, and is about one thouſand miles in length from north to ſouth, and generally between two and three hundred miles broad. It abounds in corn, cattle, fiſh, fowl, and all manner of animals and vegetables that are to be found

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on the continent of Africa. Here are a great variety of hills, vallies, woods, and champaign; and the iſland is well watered with ſprings and rivers; neither does it want good harbours, and yet no European nation has thought it worth while to plant colonies in it, no merchandize being produced therein that will bear the expence of ſo long a voyage, except Negroes, which are purchaſed here as well as on the continent, by trading ſhips. But beſides Negroes, there are white men, and a tawny generation upon the coaſt, who are deſcended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language, and their religious rites, having a mixture of Mohammedaniſm, Judaiſm, and Paganiſm; but they have no moſques, temples, nor any ſtated worſhip. The country is divided amongſt a great many petty ſovereigns, to whom the ſeamen that touch there give the titles of kings and princes, who, making war on each other, as they do on the continent, ſell their priſoners, or ſlaves, to the ſhipping which call here, taking clothing, utenſils, and other neceſſaries, in return. European pirates, of which lately was the noted Avery, had frequently their ſtations in the harbours of this iſland. It is confidently affirmed, that the iſland has alſo gold and ſilver mines; but it is not known in what province they lie. Nor does it want for precious ſtones, as topazes, amethyſts, agates, &c. but the natives value a plate of copper more than the moſt beautiful precious ſtone, when rough; and deride foreigners who bid them any thing for them. The iſland is not populous in proportion to its bigneſs.

Bourbon. Maſcarin, called Maſcareigne, or the Iſle of Bourbon by the French, is about three hundred and ſeventy miles diſtant from the coaſt of Madagaſcar, to the eaſt, under the twenty-firſt and twenty-ſecond degrees of ſouth latitude. It was diſcovered by a Portugueſe of the houſe of Maſcarenhas, who gave it his name. Afterwards M. de Flacourt, governor of Fort Dauphin, and of the French ſettlements in Madagaſcar, gave it the name of Bourbon, in the year 1654, when he took poſſeſſion of it in the name of his king. However, the French did not ſettle at firſt upon this iſland; but, finding afterwards how advantageous it might prove to their navigation, they made a conſiderable ſettlement there in 1672, after they had quitted the iſland of Madagaſcar. They have now pretty conſiderable towns there, with a governor and ſeveral magiſtrates. There are many good roads for ſhipping about this iſland, but no ſafe ports to ſecure ſhips againſt the violent

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violent ſtorms which often rage in thoſe parts. This is, at preſent, the baiting-place of the French Eaſt India ſhips, and the only one where they can conveniently get refreſhments. The iſland, which is about ninety miles round, is fruitful in plants, and abounds particularly with aloes, tobacco, white-pepper, ebony, palm, and other fruit-trees; a kind of trees which produce odoriferous gums, as benzoin, &c. and a great many trees proper for timber. The ſoil is well watered by ſeveral ſmall rivers, rivulets, and ſprings of very good water; and the rivers abound with fiſh. On the ſea-ſhore are gathered great quantities of ambergriſe, coral, and fine ſhells. There are many more ſmall iſlands about Madagaſcar, but not worth mentioning. The iſlands of the Atlantic Ocean, next in order, are

St. Helena, ſituate in weſt longitude 6° 30′, ſouth latitude 16°, twelve hundred miles weſt of the continent of Africa, and eighteen hundred eaſt of South America. It is a rock in the middle of the ocean, very high and ſteep, about twenty miles in circumference, and only acceſſible at the landing-place, which is defended by batteries of guns. A foot of good earth covers the top of it, and produces corn, grapes, and all fruit proper for the climate. It abounds alſo in cattle, poultry, and other fowls; but the inhabitants are unfortunate in having a multitude of rats in the iſland, which eat up all the corn as ſoon as it is ſown; and, by burrowing in the rock, there is no practicable means of deſtroying them; ſo that all the flour they uſe is imported from England, and in a ſcarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes, inſtead of bread. The Eaſt India company are proprietors of the iſland, which was given them by king Charles II. ſoon after it was taken from the Dutch by admiral Monday, in 1672. There are about two hundred families in the iſland, moſt of them the children of the Engliſh that planted it: their complexions are as good as thoſe of the natives of Old England, though they lie in ſo warm a latitude; which may be aſcribed to the trade winds, which conſtantly blow over them, and the ſea, which ſo cloſely ſurrounds the iſland, and renders it cooler than might be expected. Here the Engliſh Eaſt India ſhips take in water and freſh proviſions in their way home; but the iſland is ſo very ſmall, and the wind ſo much againſt them outward-bound, that they very ſeldom ſee it then; and if a ſhip overſhoots the iſland, and falls to leeward, it is very difficult to recover it.

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Aſcenſion. The Iſland of Aſcenſion is ſituate in ſeventeen degrees weſt longitude, and ſeven ſouth latitude, ſix hundred miles north-weſt of St. Helena. It is about twenty miles round and uninhabited; but the Eaſt India ſhips uſually touch here to furniſh themſelves with turtle, or tortoiſes, which are plentiful and very large, ſome of them weighing above a hundred pounds a-piece.

St. Matthew. The iſland of St. Matthew lies in 9 degrees weſt longitude, and in 2° 30′ ſouth latitude, ſeven hundred miles ſouth of Cape Palmas.

St. Thomas. The iſland of St. Thomas is ſituate under the equator, in eight degrees, eaſt longitude.

Anaboa. Anaboa is ſituate near the coaſt of Loango, in eaſt longitude 8° 30′, ſouth latitude 1°.

Prince's Iſland. Prince's Iſland on the ſame coaſt, in eaſt longitude 9°, north latitude 1°.

Fernando Po. Fernando Po is ſituate in eaſt longitude 10°, north latitude 3°, near the mouth of the river Cameron. Theſe five are ſmall iſlands belonging to the Portugueſe, which furniſh ſhipping with freſh water and proviſions as they paſs by, but are not conſiderable on any other account.

Goree. Goree is ſituate in 14 deg. 41 min. north latitude, and 17 deg. 20 min. weſt longitude, about eight leagues to the ſouth-eaſt of Cape Verd, and within about three miles of the continent. It is about three quarters of a mile in length, and one quarter in breadth. It was taken, in 1758, from the French, by commodore Keppel, and reſtored to them by the definitive treaty of peace in the year 1763. Its appearance from the ſea is low and even, except towards the ſouth-weſt, where it riſes into a rocky hill, upon the ſummit of which is ſituated the fort, called St. Michael. Beſides French natives, the iſland is inhabited by about three hundred free Negroes, all Chriſtians, who live in the plain, to the ſouth.

Cape Verd Iſlands. Cape Verd Iſlands are ſituate between the 13th deg. 50 minutes, and the 17th deg. 50 minutes of north latitude, and between the 22d and 25th degrees of longitude weſt from London. They were diſcovered by Antonio Noel, a Genoeſe, in the ſervice of Portugal, in the year 1460, and are governed by a viceroy from Portugal, who reſides in the iſle of St. Jago. The inhabitants are Europeans, or families originally from Europe, with a good number of Negroes, all profeſſing the religion of the church of Rome. The moſt conſiderable of theſe iſlands are,

Mayo, the whole of which is a very dry ſort of ſoil, without any freſh water or ſtreams to moiſten it; but only ſhowers in the wet ſeaſon, which run off as faſt as they

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they fall. There is but one ſmall ſpring in the middle of the iſle, from which proceeds a little ſtream of water, that runs through a valley between the hills. On the weſt ſide of the iſland, where the road for ſhips is, there is a large ſandy bay, and a ſand-bank about forty paces wide, which runs two or three miles along the ſhore, within which there is a large ſalina, or ſalt-pond, contained between the ſand-bank and the hills beyond it. The waters which yield this ſalt work out of the ſea, through a hole in the ſand-bank, like a ſluice, and that only in ſpring-tides, when it fills the pond, more or leſs, according to the height of the tides. They who come hither to lade ſalt take it up as it kerns, and lay it up in heaps on the dry land, before the water breaks in again. Our nation drives a great trade here for ſalt, and has commonly a man of war ſtationed here, for the guard of our ſhips and barques that come to take it in; of which, in ſome years, there have not been leſs than a hundred in a year. It coſts nothing but men's labour to rake it together, and wheel it out of the pond, except the carriage, and that is alſo very cheap; the inhabitants having plenty of aſſes, for which they have little to do, beſides carrying the ſalt from the ponds to the ſea-ſide, at the ſeaſon when the ſhips are here. Theſe aſſes too are a commodity in ſome of thoſe iſlands, ſeveral of our ſhips coming hither to freight with them, carry them to Barbadoes, and our other plantations. The inhabitants of this iſland, even their governor and prieſts, are all Negroes, and ſpeak the Portugueſe language. The Negro governor expects a ſmall preſent from every commander that lades ſalt, and is glad to be invited aboard their ſhips.

St. Jago is the chief, the moſt fruitful, and beſt inhabited of all the iſlands of Cape Verd; and yet is mountainous and has much barren land. On the eaſt ſide of the iſland is a town called Baya, with a good port, which, in peaceable times, eſpecially, is ſeldom without ſhips: for this has been long a place where ſhips outward-bound to Guinea, or the Eaſt Indies, Engliſh, French, and Dutch, have been wont to touch at for water and refreſhments, but few ſhips call here on their return to Europe. St. Jago town, the capital of the iſland, lies on the ſouth-weſt part of it, and is the ſeat of the general-governor, and of the biſhop of all the Cape Verd Iſlands. There are ſeveral ſmall ſugar-works on this iſland, from which they ſend into Portugal near a hundred tons every year; and they have plenty of cotton growing in the country,

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wherewith they clothe themſelves, and ſend alſo a great deal to Braſil. They have ſome wines, and an abundance of different ſorts of excellent fruits.

The other iſlands are, Buena Viſta, Sal or Salt Iſland, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, St. Anthony, Fuego a volcano, and Brava; ſome of which have very good roads and harbours. The iſland Sal is full of large ſalt ponds, where the water naturally congeals into ſalt; and at St. Vincent the Portugueſe load hides.

Canaries. The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Iſlands, are ſituate between 12 and 19 degrees weſt longitude, and between 27 and 29 north latitude, about one hundred and fifty miles ſouth-weſt of Morocco. The chief iſland, called the Great Canary, which communicates its name to the reſt, is ſituate between 27 and 28 degrees of north latitude, and is about one hundred and fifty miles in circumference. The particular names of the others are Lancerota, Fuerte Ventura, Teneriffe, Gomera, Ferro, and Palma; in all ſeven in number. Theſe iſlands enjoy a pure temperate air, and we may judge of the richneſs of the ſoil from their having frequently two harveſts in a year. They abound particularly in the moſt delicious fruits, among which the grapes produce thoſe rich wines that obtain the name of Canary, whereof no leſs than ten thouſand hogſheads are annually exported to England in time of peace. They were firſt diſcovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans deſtroying that ſtate, put a ſtop to navigation, eſpecially on the weſt coaſt of Africa, and theſe iſlands lay concealed afterwards from the reſt of the world, for many ages, till they were again diſcovered by the Spaniards in 1405. The natives, upon the firſt landing of the Spaniards were idolaters, worſhipping the ſun and ſtars; their number was very conſiderable; they were robuſt and active, and well ſkilled in the management of the warlike weapons of bows, arrows, and darts. None of the people of the continent could underſtand their language; but when they had learnt Spaniſh enough to be underſtood, could give no account of their anceſtors, or from what country they came; and though they reſembled the natives of the north of Africa in their ſtature and complexion, retained none of their cuſtoms, were maſters of no ſcience, and did not know there was any country in the world beſides their own. Having ſtruggled for their liberties till about the year 1460, they were forced to yield to the ſuperior power of their invaders, who ſent a great number of them to

Spain,

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Spain, to end their days in ſlavery. Thoſe that were more fortunate have endeavoured to retain their ancient demeſnes, by ſubmitting entirely to the Spaniſh yoke in church and ſtate, and now far exceed their teachers in probity and civility to ſtrangers.

The Gran Canaria, the capital, which ſtands on the ſouth-weſt ſide of the iſland, called the Great Canary, is defended by a very ordinary caſtle; but its beſt defence are the rocks that lie under water, which make the approach to the ſhore very dangerous. There is eighteen fathom water before it, and it meaſures about a league in circumference; but the houſes, though for the moſt part built well enough, are low, ſeldom above one ſtory, and terraſſed at top. Here is the epiſcopal ſee, the inquiſition-office, the ſupreme council, or aſſembly of the ſtates of the ſeven iſlands, and ſeveral houſes of monks, friars, and nuns.

About fourteen leagues from the Great Canary, is Teneriffe, in which is a mountain called the Pico, or Peak of Teneriffe. It is ſo high, that as ſoon as the ſun appears, its ſhadow ſeems to cover not only this and the Great Canary Iſland, but even the ſea to the very horizon; where its top, in the form of a ſugar-loaf, ſeems to turn up, and to caſt its ſhadow into the air. It requires three days to arrive at the top, from whence may be ſeen to the diſtance of above fifty leagues round, and all the adjacent iſlands plainly diſcovered; and, though it often emits fire, flames, ſmoke, and aſhes, like Ætna and Veſuvius, it is ſo cold, and covered with ſnow at the top, that there is no aſcending it but from the middle of May to the middle of Auguſt. In the year 1704, there happened ſo dreadful an eruption of ſulphur and melted ore from this mountain, that it ran down like a river, and deſtroyed ſeveral conſiderable towns, ſpoiling the richeſt lands in the iſland, and converting them into a barren deſert.

Fountain-tree, a remarkable production of nature.

The moſt remarkable curioſity of theſe iſlands is the fountain-tree, in the iſland of Ferro. This iſland has neither river, ſpring, fountain, nor well, though twenty-five leagues in circumference; but was formerly ſupplied with abundance of wholeſome freſh water by means of this wonderful tree. All the authors who have recorded the diſcovery of theſe iſlands mention it; and Lewis Jackſon, an Engliſhman, has exactly deſcribed its nature and qualities. This tree is as thick as an oak, between ſix and ſeven fathom high, the branches ſpreading ſomewhat looſe

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looſe and open, and the leaves like thoſe of laurel, white within and green without; it bears neither fruit nor bloſſoms, dries, and ſeems to wither in the day-time, when the ſun ſhines, and drops water all night; when a cloud always hovers about its top. Under each of theſe trees, of which there are many in this iſland, there was a ciſtern or baſon, capable of holding ſufficient water for eight thouſand inhabitants, and one hundred thouſand beaſts on this iſland. The principal baſon is ſuppoſed to have contained twenty thouſand tons, and was filled in one night, and conveyed through ſeveral canals into other reſervoirs about the iſland; a thing incredible, did not experience evince the truth of it. Hence alſo we may account for its name, Pluvialia, in ancient geography, which imports, that this iſland was ſupplied with water from heaven. Some modern writers have taken the liberty to decry this account as a mere fiction; merely, becauſe Providence having taught the inhabitants a more eaſy manner of ſaving rain-water in ciſterns, and of filtrating brackiſh water for common uſe, thought proper to alter its former method: and indeed this method of ſupplying a certain people with water from heaven, is as eaſy to be accounted for, as God's feeding the Iſraelites forty years with bread from heaven in the wilderneſs; and there is no more inconſiſtency in its ceaſing now for ſome years paſt, ſince the inhabitants have been providentially inſtructed to ſupply their want of water in a more natural way, than there is in God's ceaſing to rain manna every morning, after the Iſraelites were arrived in a land, where, by art, cultivation, and induſtry, they were able to procure corn from the earth for their ſuſtenance. Theſe exertions of God's Providence were done, and continued ſo long as needful for the ſupport of his creatures, to ſhew that his mercy is over all his works, and were only diſcontinued when they were enabled to provide for themſelves in a natural way.

Madeira. Madeira, the beſt of the African iſlands, lies under the thirty-ſecond degree of north latitude, and under the ſeventeenth and eighteenth degrees of longitude, weſt from London. The air is far more moderate than in the Canary Iſlands, and the ſoil more fertile in corn, wine, ſugar, and fruits, being much better watered by five or ſix little rivers; but it is alike ſtored with the ſame ſort of cattle, birds, plants, and trees, from which are had dragons-blood, maſtic, and other gums. Here is a perpetual ſpring, and warm weather, which produce bloſſoms and fruit

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fruit every month in the year. The lemons are of a monſtrous ſize, with oranges of all ſorts. Fruit-trees from Europe thrive in perfection. They make here the beſt ſweet-meats in the world, and ſucceed wonderfully in preſerving large citrons, and beautiful oranges, and in making marmalades and perfumed paſtes, which infinitely exceed thoſe of Genoa, whatever the Italians may pretend. The ſugar they make is extremely beautiful, and ſmells naturally of violets. This is the firſt place in the Weſt where this manufacture was ſet on foot; and from hence it has been carried into America, where they make ſuch vaſt quantities of ſugar, that the Portugueſe, finding that this trade was not ſo profitable to them here as it proved at firſt, pulled up the greateſt part of their ſugar-canes, and planted vineyards in their ſtead, which produce excellent wine, and which foreigners come to purchaſe, and whereby the Portugueſe make an immenſe profit. It is obſervable of Madiera wine, that the heat of the ſun improves it much, when expoſed to it in the barrel, after the bung is taken off. They make in the whole iſland, about twenty-eight thouſand pipes of wine, eight thouſand of which are drank there, and the reſt exported, the greateſt part to the Weſt Indies, eſpecially to Barbadoes. The chief towns are Fuchal and Porto Santo, both very populous. This iſland wants harbours, and has only a bay, which is ſafe enough, except when the wind blows from the ſouth-weſt. The Portugueſe planted this iſland in 1425, and by burning down the woods with which it was almoſt covered, rendered it exceeding fruitful. It is computed to be about one hundred and twenty miles in circumference.

CHAP.

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CHAP. III.

Of EUROPE.

SECT. I.

Of Europe in general.

Boundaries and extent. EUROPE, one of the four divisions made by geographers of the whole world, is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the south by the Mediterranean Sea, which divides it from Africa; on the east by Asia, from which it is parted by the Archipelago, the Euxine or Black Sea, and the Palus Mæotis, and thence by a line drawn from the river Tanais or Don, almost to the river Oby, in Muscovy; and on the west it is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean. It is extended between 34 and 80 degrees north latitude, and between 5 and 80 degrees of longitude, reckoning the first meridian to pass through the island of Teneriffe. It contains in breadth as a continent, from the North Cape to Cape Metapan in the Morea, about two thousand six hundred miles; and in length, from the mouth of the river Oby in the east to Cape St. Vincent in Portugal, west, about two thousand eight hundred miles.

Advantages of Europe. Though Europe be the least of the four parts of the world, it may justly have the preference for the mildness of the air, the fertility of the soil, the many navigable rivers, the great plenty of corn, cattle, wine, oil, and all things requisite, not only for the sustenance and comfort, but even for the luxury of human life; and more especially for the beauty, strength, courage, ingenuity, industry, and wisdom of its inhabitants; the excellency of their governments, the equity of their laws, the freedom of their subjects; and, which surpasses all, the purity and sanctity of the Christian religion, which is professed throughout all Europe, except that part of it which is possessed by the Turks. Europe also has for many ages been exceeding populous, and her inhabitants, in general, are justly illustrious for their valour, wisdom, and virtue; by which they conquered the greatest part of Asia and Africa, and subjected them to the two empires of Greece and Rome; and, in these latter ages, almost one half of the earth, that was formerly unknown, has been discovered

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vered by Europeans, and poſſeſſed by the colonies they have ſent thither.

The Europeans alſo have been the moſt renowned for learning and arts. All their ſcholaſtic ſciences they have brought to a much greater perfection than either the Aſiatics or Africans ever did; and the invention and improvement of numberleſs uſeful and ingenious arts, particularly that of navigation, on which all intercourſe of foreign commerce between diſtant nations depends, is wholly owing to the genius and induſtry of the inhabitants of this part of the world.

Europe how firſt peopled.

Europe was peopled after the flood, as is generally believed, by the poſterity of Japhet, who came from Aſia Minor, over the Helleſpont, into Greece; though ſome ſay, that the deſcendants of Shem, paſſing by land between the Caſpian Sea and the Palus Mæotis, went through Tartary and Scythia into Scandinavia, and thence afterwards into France, Germany, and the neighbouring countries. Which of theſe opinions is moſt to be credited we cannot undertake to determine; but we may account for, with great certainty, the original of the principal ſtates of Europe, as to their preſent conſtitution, in this manner.

Origin of the European ſtates.

The Roman empire was deſtroyed by thoſe multitudes of people that poured forth from the North at different times into different countries, and moſt of the nations that are conſiderable at preſent were peopled by them, and are in the poſſeſſion of their deſcendants. The firſt of theſe that ravaged Europe were the Cimbri, ſo early as the year 639 from the building of Rome, but they were entirely extirpated by Marius before they got footing in Italy. The Viſigoths, or weſtern Goths, had better ſucceſs ſome centuries afterwards; they ſacked Rome under Alaric, in the year of Chriſt 409, and ſettled in Italy, Languedoc, and Spain; though their Italian kingdom was ruined by Narſes the eunuch, Juſtinian's general, in 552. The provinces of Gaul fell to the ſhare of the Franks and Burgundians, and ſtill retain the names of their conquerors. The Huns ſubdued Pannonia, which has ever ſince been called Hungary. The Romans being no longer able to defend Britain from the incurſions of the Picts and other wild people, the Britons called in the Angles, or Saxons, to their aſſiſtance, who defeated both parties in their turn, took poſſeſſion of the beſt part of the country for themſelves, and gave it the name of England. The Britons, thus expelled from their inheritance by their foreign allies,

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lies, retired, some into that part of France which is from them called Brittany, and others, who would not adventure to quit the island, retreated beyond the river Severn, into that part of it which was named Wales by the Saxons.

The Longobardi, or Lombards, a people originally from Scandinavia, but last from Hungary, were the next that settled in Italy, part of which is called Lombardy. Afterwards the Normans, another northern people, overran that part of France which still bears the name of Normandy, obtained the crown of England under William I. penetrated even into Italy, and there founded the kingdom of Naples.

The last emperor of the western part of the Roman empire was Augustulus, driven out of Italy by an inundation of barbarous people about the latter end of the fifth century, under Odoacer, who changed the title, and was the first who called himself king of the Romans. Amongst the effects of these changes, religion was not the least; for as the removal of the seat of empire from Rome to Constantinople was the true cause of the ruin of the Roman state, so it was the very means of the rise of the Roman church; for the popes, or bishops of Rome, who until that time had no authority but that which their piety and learning gave them amongst an ignorant people, became, in the absence of the emperors, mediators of all the differences of Italy. On the destruction of the eastern empire by the Turks, the popes had recourse to France to support the power they had gained by degrees against the encroachments of the Lombards, and it was Charlemagne who laid the foundation of and established that vast influence which this spiritual monarchy afterwards obtained. In return for this they made him emperor, and he created his son king of the Romans, which title is still often vested in the eldest son of the emperor of Germany, though not now by creation, but by a majority of the electors of the empire, to which the person so chosen succeeds in course. The pope created the priests near Rome cardinals, who soon excluded the people from their right of voting in the election of a pope, and always advanced one of their own college to the holy see. The pope also in the time of Otho III. deprived the Roman people of their right of voting in the election of an emperor, a privilege they had till then enjoyed, and vested it in the six electorates of Germany, three ecclesiastic, Mentz, Triers or Treves, and Cologne; and three secular princes,

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Brandenburg, Palatine, and Saxony; to theſe latter Bavaria and Hanover have ſince been added; the kingdom of Bohemia has alſo a vote in the election. The emperors and popes, though they had thus mutually concurred to the aggrandizement of each other, ſoon diſagreed, inſomuch that pope Alexander II. ventured to degrade Henry II. from the empire. This bold ſtep divided Italy, and was the origin of the famous parties of Guelfs and Ghibellines, the latter of whom favoured the imperial, the former the papal authority. A principal partizan among the Guelfs was Maud, counteſs of Tuſcany, who left that part of her dominions which is ſtill called the Patrimony of St. Peter, to the church. This was a great addition of power to the popes, but the occaſion of almoſt all the wars that happened in Italy for two centuries afterwards; for the popes, to extend their own dominions, or to erect principalities or dukedoms for their families, called firſt one foreign power, then another, into Italy, and gave riſe to all the pretenſions which the French, Spaniards, and Germans, have upon moſt of the territories there; and to thoſe diſputes in which ſo much blood has been ſhed, and which have required ſo many treaties to adjuſt them, even down to the preſent times.

The modern powers of Europe, built upon the ruins of the Roman empire are, the empire of Germany, with all its ſovereign independent ſtates; the kingdoms of France, Spain, England, Hungary, Naples, and Sardinia; the territories of the pope, and all the dukedoms and republics of Italy. The eaſtern empire is now entirely under the dominion of the Turk, where the ſword of Mohammed has planted his doctrine, which is likely to continue without the divine interpoſition; for the intereſts of Chriſtian potentates will always be different, and the humour of entering into wars for the ſake of religion is over long ſince.

Uſe of languages to diſcover the origin of nations.

All theſe great changes did not only alter the names of the provinces, cities, and rivers, but gave riſe to ſeveral modern languages; thoſe of France, Spain, and Italy, being various mixtures of the ancient Roman or Latin tongue, with that then ſpoken by the new poſſeſſors of theſe ſeveral countries. Nothing bids fairer to diſcover the origin of nations than the critical knowlege of languages; for it is evident, that as hiſtorical monuments are far from reaching to the origin of nations, great uſe may be made of the veſtiges of ancient languages ſtill remaining, eſpecially in the proper names of rivers and foreſts,

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forcſts, and even of countries, towns, and men; and as it may be laid down as a principle, that all proper names were originally appellative, the queſtion will be therefore to find out the ſignification of thoſe ancient names, which is not always impoſſible.

We learn from a verſe in the poet Venantius Fortunatus, that the word Ric, or Ricus, which was the termination of ſo many names among the Germani, Franks, Alemanni, Saxons, Goths, Vandals, &c. ſignified only fortis, *ſtrong*, ſince that poet renders the name Chilperic, adjutor fortis, *a ſtrong helper*; and help, or hulpe, is uſed ſtill in the Teutonic languages, for auxilium, *aſſiſtance*. One may obſerve in the greateſt part of our continent, ſome remains of an ancient prevailing language, which has been as it were perpetuated, by ſome words uſed from the Britiſh ſea as far as Japan. Without dwelling upon the word ſack, which has been obſerved by ſo many grammarians, the ancient Celtic word mar, or mare, *a horſe*, not only ſtill remains in the word marechal, a word common to ſo many languages, but is not unknown to the moſt eaſtern Tartars, namely, to thoſe who conquered China. Such is again the word kan, *king, prince*, derived from the verbs kan, konnen, which in the Teutonic language ſignify poſſe, *to be able*; for it is well known that theſe words, king, konïg, chagon, kan, denote or denoted, *a monarch, a great man*, among all the Germanic nations, the Sarmatæ, the Huns, the Perſians, the Turks, and the Tartars, as far as China.

Hence there is good reaſon to believe, that the greateſt part of the words of the primitive language were formed by onomatopia, that is, men endeavoured to expreſs, by a ſound, the idea or paſſion excited in them, by the preſence of certain objects; and that therefore, for example, the power and ſtrength of thoſe, who firſt uſurped empire over men, are in ſome meaſure repreſented by the ſtrong pronunciation of the word kan, which is owing to the letter *k*.

All the languages derived from that primitive language may be properly divided into two great claſſes. The firſt we may call Japhetic, or Scythian languages; theſe were ſpread through the northern countries, in which we may reckon all Europe. The ſecond go by the name of Aramean languages, and were ſpoken in the ſouthern countries: among the latter the Arabic ſeems to have prevailed over all others, the Syriac, Chaldaic, Hebrew, Punic, and Ethiopic, being only dialects of it. The Perſian,

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Perſian, Armenian, and Georgian, are a mixture of the Scythian and Aramean languages. As for the Coptic, or Egyptian, there is little affinity between it and the other ſouthern languages, that its original might well be derived from the ancient language ſpoken in Ethiopia, before the Arabs penetrated into that country.

From the ancient Scythian language ſprung thoſe of the Turks, Sarmatians, Finnonians, and Celtæ: by the ancient Scythians are underſtood thoſe nations that firſt inhabited the ſhores of the Euxine Sea, and are called Cimmerii by Homer. A ſurpriſing affinity is found between ſome words of the ancient Scythian language, preſerved by Herodotus, and thoſe languages which are originally Celtic, ſuch as the Greek, the Latin, the Iriſh, and the German. That Greek hiſtorian informs us that the Amazons, a Scythian nation, were ſurnamed Æorpata, that is, *murderers of men*, from theſe two Scythian words æor, *man*, and pata, *to kill*: but this laſt word is very like the ancient Latin verb batuo, which ſignifies the ſame thing; and the word æor comes very near theſe Latin, Iriſh, and German words, vir, baro, herus, herr, er, var, which denote *a man*. In the Greek, Latin, and German languages, the etymology of the Scythian word arimaſpi may be found out: it was, according to the teſtimony of Herodotus, the name of a Scythian nation, ſo called becauſe the men had but one eye; for, ſays Herodotus, arima ſignifies *one*, in the Scythian language, and ſpu ſignifies *eye*. We find ſome veſtiges of thoſe two words, both as to the ſound and ſignification, in the Greek word ἔρημος, *ſolitude*; in the German word arm, *poor, deſolate, forſaken*; and in theſe Latin, German, Italian, and French words, ſpecere, ſpehen, ſpiare, eſpier, which ſignifies *to ſee, to look*. Thus it were to be wiſhed that ſome learned man would give himſelf the trouble to make a collection of all the ancient Scythian words, as others have collected all the ancient terms uſed among the Gauls, Phrygians, Ethiopians, &c.

If we take a ſurvey of the ſeveral nations which may be deemed Scythians by extraction, we may begin with the Turks, with whom may be enumerated the Little Tartars, the Calmucs, the Moguls, and the eaſtern Tartars, becauſe the language of all thoſe nations have a great affinity: afterwards we may proceed to the Sarmatians, called ſince Sclavonians, to whom may be referred not only the Muſcovites, the Poles, the Bohemians, the Moravians, the Bulgarians, the Dalmatians, and the Sclavo-

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nians of our time, but alſo other Sarmatians more northern, bordering upon the Baltic Sea, and called Wendi or Venedi; of whom are ſtill ſome conſiderable remains in the duchy of Lunenberg, and in Luſatia and Brandenberg. Among the Sarmatians may alſo be reckoned the Huns and the Avari, who formerly invaded Pannonia or Hungary; the Raſcians, the Servians, the Croatians, and ſome other nations are their poſterity: as for the Hungari, they did not make themſelves maſters of Pannonia till a long time after being come from the Aſiatic Scythia, under the empire of Charlemagne. What ſhews that the Huns were Sarmatians, or Sclavonians, is, that in the language of the latter, coni, or chuni, ſignifies *a horſe*; and it is well known that the Huns had no other troops but cavalry, as the Tartars; ſo that Hun and *horſeman* are one and the ſame thing. Beſides Jornandes, deſcribing the funeral of Attilla, king of the Huns, mentions a great feaſt, which he calls Strawa; a name uſed to this day, among the Sclavonians, to denote a great apparel. As for what concerns the Finnonians, Tacitus, who calls them Fennos, repreſents them as a wild and fierce people, which very well agrees with the Laplanders and Samoeids, who in ſome reſpects are originally Finnonians. It is very probable that the inhabitants of Eſthonia and Livonia, and ſome other nations that live along the ſhores of the Baltic Sea, whoſe language have no affinity with the Sclavonian, might be of a Finnonian race; but it is more than probable that the Hungarians, who came from Aſia, are of the ſame race; the more, becauſe there is no language in Europe that comes ſo near the Hungarian as the Finnonian.

The Celtæ came originally from Scythia, and ſpread themſelves through the greateſt part of Europe: they peopled by degrees, Germany, Gaul, Italy, Spain, and Great Britain. Hence it ſeems well grounded that the ancient Britons were the firſt inhabitants of Ireland, and that the language of that country would afford the beſt means of reviving the ancient Celtic. The Cambrians, or Cimbri, now called among us the Welſh, and the Anglo Saxons, ſucceeded the ancient Britons. The firſt inhabitants of Italy were the Celtæ, who came from Germany and Gaul; and, in proceſs of time, many Greeks, Lydians, Phrygians, Phœnicians, and other nations were incorporated with them. The ancient Hetrurian language, which is no longer underſtood, as its characters cannot be read, was in all probability ſpoken by the ancient

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cient inhabitants of Italy. As for the Spaniards, it may be believed that they are generally of a Celtic extraction; but the Baſques may well perplex any linguiſt, becauſe their language being ſo far different from all thoſe known to us, it may be thought, with good reaſon, that, before the arrival of the Celtæ in Spain, that country was inhabited by ſome African colony, from which the Baſques are deſcended. Some have thought they found an analogy between this language and the Iriſh; but they are indeed quite different.

Germany ſent ſeveral colonies into France and Italy, and alſo furniſhed Scandinavia with new inhabitants, who drove away the Finnonians, or Laplanders. This opinion ſeems to differ much from that of ſeveral learned men in the North, who look upon the Germans as a colony of the ancient Goths. Certain it is, that this origin would have ſome probability, if the inhabitants of the remoteſt parts of Sweden and Norway ſpoke the Germanic language. Theſe inhabitants are Laplanders, or Finnonians; but their language has no affinity with the German. It may, notwithſtanding, be ſaid, that the Germans, having increaſed in Scandinavia, ſpread themſelves again through Germany; for it is certain that the Cimbri, the Saxons, the Heruli, the Vandals, and ſome other nations, came from the ſhores of the Baltic Sea; but this happened long after the firſt migrations.

From theſe curſory reflections on the uſe of languages to diſcover the origin of nations, an ingenious perſon, beſides ſatisfying curioſity, may find wherewithal to ſupply with very probable conjectures the deficiency of hiſtorical monuments. The hint is improveable, and in the main may be attended with ſome utility.

Conſiderations on Europe compared with the other parts of the world.

But to reſume the courſe of our general obſervations upon Europe, from which we may ſeem to have digreſſed; it may be ſaid, that though Europe is eſteemed the moſt happy and valuable quarter of the globe, theſe prerogatives are not derived from its ſize, ſince it is the leaſt of all the four into which the world is divided. It has been ſuppoſed, that if the whole habitable globe was divided into three hundred parts, Europe will contain of theſe twenty-ſeven, Aſia, one hundred and one, Africa, eighty-two, and America, ninety: and though Europe reſpectively excels America, and perhaps Africa, yet ſhe falls far ſhort of Aſia, if we may depend on the accounts of the leaſt experienced travellers. With regard to ſubterranean riches, her gold and ſilver mines are not to be

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compared with those in the other quarters of the world; she has few precious stones, and, as to spices and perfumes, we well know from whence they come. But with regard to territory, if we consider what the Spaniards, the English, the Portuguese, the French, and the Dutch possess in the other parts of the world, it may be said, that the dominions of the European powers are equal, if not superior to Asia; and, if it does not contain so many people within its own limits, yet it commands more; and, in consequence of their trade, the Europeans enjoy all that nature has bestowed on the other parts of the world.

Revival and progress of the trade of Europe.

The trade of Europe has, in a course of ages, undergone great alterations. Upon the fall of the Roman empire, it seemed to be, in some measure, extinguished, but soon revived among the Saxons, who, when they became masters of this island, established a great maritime power here, which did not continue long, the Danes becoming masters of this country. After some ages, commerce and maritime power retired southward, and were, in a manner, engrossed by the Italian states, particularly by the Venetians and Genoese, who shared the traffic of the East. In the thirteenth century, several free cities in Germany began to league together for the support of their trade, and made their confederacy known to the world by the title of the Hanseatic League. As their trade acquired them immense wealth and power, so it rendered them haughty and insolent, which, with other concurring circumstances, at length brought on their ruin; for in the fifteenth century the Portuguese perfected a new route to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope; and about the same time the Spaniards discovered America, which threw the trade of Europe, and its chief naval power, into the hands of those nations, who, if they had known how to cultivate and use them with moderation, might not only have raised it higher, but made it more durable than it proved. But the boundless ambition, and cruel oppression of the Spaniards, animated the United Provinces to throw off their yoke, and engaged them and the English to share in those riches, which were the source of the Spanish power; and this gave rise to the maritime powers. The progress of the Dutch from this time, in commerce and naval power, was amazingly rapid; for in the space of about half a century, from having scarce any ships at all, they came to have more than all Europe together. Since that time, Great Britain, by extending her

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commerce and multiplying her colonies, has raiſed her maritime force to an equality, and now even to a great degree beyond the Dutch. The French too have for ſome years paſt not only raiſed a conſiderable maritime force, but extended their traffic into moſt parts of the world: for though the three laſt general wars, in a great meaſure, ruined their navy, yet we experienced by the laſt war, that they had greatly raiſed it again, and carried their commerce to a pitch beyond all apprehenſion; and, whatever diſadvantages they lately ſuſtained in either, they now ſeem to be in a fair way of retrieving them: ſo that the maritime affairs of Europe have in the laſt and preſent century ſuffered a very great change, though probably they may ſuffer a greater before the preſent century is expired. The like attention to commerce and maritime power has, within theſe ſixty years, appeared in almoſt every other nation in Europe. The Swedes and Danes have ſet up Eaſt India companies, and the Ruſſians have opened a new and beneficial traffic, as well on the Caſpian as on the Black Sea. The houſe of Auſtria has ſhewed a great deſire of reviving the ancient commerce of the Low Countries. The Genoeſe not long ſince have erected a company of aſſurances, to encourage their ſubjects to venture upon long voyages, and, if poſſible, to recover their ancient reputation, as a maritime power. Nay, even the Spaniards themſelves, who, in this reſpect, have ſlept for ſuch a number of years, have at length opened their eyes, and erected ſome companies, and eſtabliſhed ſome capital manufactures for the encouragement and extenſion of trade throughout their European and American dominions. Whence it is plain, that the navigation and ſhipping of the Europeans in general, are, within theſe laſt ſixty years, greatly increaſed, and now in a very proſperous condition.

Superiority of one European nation over another, by trade and naval power.

That nation which augments its commerce and maritime power to the greateſt extent, bids faireſt to give law to the reſt. Thus, for inſtance, if the houſe of Bourbon ſhould ever acquire as great a proportion of trade and naval power as either of the maritime powers, by which name they are at preſent diſtinguiſhed, this would be an acquiſition of much more conſequence, than any they have hitherto made in point of territories or dominion. It is, therefore, the intereſt of the maritime powers to ſuſtain their characters in that reſpect at all events, ſince by this means only they can preſerve their independency, protect their ſubjects wherever they may be ſettled or diſperſed, and

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aſſiſt their allies, notwithſtanding the efforts and ambitious deſigns of any aſpiring neighbour. We need not wonder then at a common notion which prevails, as if we had a right to preſcribe to ſome other nations the bounds of their naval greatneſs. What has been here ſaid in relation to trade and commerce, may anſwer the end expected from it in an hiſtorical light, and enable us, in ſome meaſure, to judge of the nature, extent, and comparative ſtrength of what is ſtyled maritime power. We ſee and know, that whatever ſtate or power is poſſeſſed of an extenſive commerce, may have a proportionate naval force, the effects of which will render her conſiderable; yet it is requiſite to know how this happens, and why the ſtrength and dominion of a maritime power is firmer and more durable than that which ariſes from a great extent of territory, multitudes of ſubjects, or rich and fruitful countries.

Trade is certainly the ſtrength and happineſs of a nation, let the form of its government be what it will; becauſe it introduces induſtry and arts, by which the manners of a people are civilized, even from the greateſt ſavageneſs and brutality. Nor is it the number of ſubjects only, but the number of uſeful ſubjects, that is, trading ſubjects, that make a ſtate powerful; for commerce introduces property, and without ſecurity in that reſpect, the inducements to purſue trade will flag; but with ſecurity, it will thrive and proſper, and wherever this ſecurity is thoroughly eſtabliſhed, and wiſely cheriſhed and promoted, it will draw after it an inconceivable flux of people.

Hence we may eaſily aſſign the true cauſes of the long duration of republics renowned for their trade; ſuch as Tyre and Carthage in ancient times, the Venetians and Genoeſe in later ages. It is almoſt impoſſible, that a nation active and induſtrious in commerce, and conſequently rich and populous, and living under a mild government, ſhould not exert a greater force when employed in attacking others, and have much greater reſources in caſe of being attacked herſelf, than other ſtates that are defective in thoſe advantages: whence it will appear, how the ſtates of Holland roſe to ſuch a great power in ſo ſhort a time, and how her ſubjects have been able to thrive and grow opulent under taxes and impoſitions, which muſt have beggared them in any other ſituation than that of a trading republic. Add to this, that trade quite changes the comparative ſtrength of ſtates and kingdoms;

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doms; becauſe, wherever it reſides, it creates ſo many and ſo great advantages, and begets ſuch relations and connections, as render a trading country infinitely ſuperior to her neighbours, who are differently circumſtanced: for ſuch a ſtate, if on the continent, can fortify her great towns, ſo as to reſiſt a power ten times ſtronger, in reſpect to people; ſhe can maintain, if requiſite, great numbers of regular troops, and on emergency hire more of her neighbours, beſides what ſhe may be able to do by the help of her maritime force. Hence ariſes that great ſtrength, or real power, ſhewn by trading republics, when attacked either by ambitious princes, or even by powerful confederates. Thus the Venetians have often been too hard for the Turks; the Genoeſe for the moſt powerful princes in Italy; and, in earlier times, the Lubeckers for the greateſt powers in the North. Hence the famous league of Cambray, which was formed for the deſtruction of the ſtate of Venice in 1509, came to nothing, though the greateſt princes of that time engaged in it, and though the Venetians themſelves were guilty of ſome indiſcretions, and though alſo they had been much exhauſted by former wars. Thus, in like manner, the famous confederacy between France and Great Britain againſt Holland in 1672, proved abortive, though, at the firſt, even the Dutch themſelves thought their affairs deſperate; but their love of liberty animated them to exert themſelves to the utmoſt, and their commerce furniſhed them with the means of getting tolerably out of the war. Nor has trade only a great influence on the particular affairs of nations ſeparately conſidered, being almoſt the ſole cauſe of a comparative difference in the ſtrength of moſt of the powers of Europe, but is alſo of unſpeakable advantage to the European quarter of the globe in general: it frees us from the apprehenſions of being over-run by thoſe barbarous empires which the Mohammedan religion has eſtabliſhed in the world, and likewiſe brings us every thing that is rich and coſtly, every thing that is curious and eſtimable, even from the remoteſt quarters of the earth; ſo that to trade alone, all is due in this part of the world. In a word, it is to commerce that the people of Europe owe their freedom and independency, their learning and arts, their extenſive colonies abroad, and their riches at home; and, above all, that naval power which ſo much ſurpaſſes any thing of the ſame kind in other parts of the world, and whatever was attempted in that way in former ages.

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European balance of power.

The reciprocal connections between nations reſulting from trade, have quite altered the ſtate of things, and produced, within theſe two or three centuries paſt, a kind of new ſyſtem in Europe, by which every ſtate is led to have a much greater concern than formerly for what may happen to another. In former ages, a quarrel in the North could only have affected the North; but in the laſt century things were totally altered. Both the Engliſh and Dutch ſent fleets into the Baltic, upon the quarrel that happened between the Swedes and Danes, a little before the Reſtoration of Charles II. Not long after this, the crown of Sweden became a contracting party in the famous triple alliance for maintaining the peace of Europe, preſerving the Spaniſh Low Countries, and ſetting bounds to the power of France. After the Revolution, towards the cloſe of the reign of king William, both the maritime powers ſent their fleets again into the Baltic, with the ſame view and the ſame ſucceſs; and the like has been done more than once ſince. In all thoſe caſes the pretence was the love of juſtice, and a punctual performance of treaties, in which there was ſomewhat of truth; but the real deſign was, to prevent thoſe inconveniences which muſt have befallen the maritime powers, if either Sweden or Denmark had been undone by thoſe wars. May it not, therefore, be truly ſaid, that the balance of power, in the ſtrict ſenſe of that phraſe, was created by trade, and muſt continue to be the object more eſpecially of trading countries, ſo long as they preſerve their commerce and freedom? Whenever any power in Europe, therefore, attempts to oppreſs another, or betrays a deſign of increaſing its own ſtrength by weakening or conquering its neighbour; other potentates are ready to interpoſe; from a quick ſenſe, not only of the inconveniencies that muſt ariſe from the incroachments made by ſuch a power, but from the juſt apprehenſions that theſe muſt prove prejudicial to commerce in general, and to that of ſeveral nations in particular. Whence it appears, that the balance of power is not an empty name, or a chimerical thing, but a juſt and ſignificant expreſſion, though a new and figurative one: for the intention is, to preſerve the ſeveral governments of Europe in their preſent condition, and prevent any in particular from acquiring ſuch a meaſure of power, as may be dangerous or fatal to thoſe reciprocal intereſts before obſerved; which, as they took riſe from, are abſolutely neceſſary to the continuance of commerce; as, indeed, any attempts thereupon

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upon muſt be felt by every nation that has a ſhare of trade to preſerve. Now, it follows, that it is the intereſt of all the powers of Europe to ſupport each other's independency, and prevent whatever has the appearance of univerſal monarchy, or the introducing the influence of one court over the greateſt part of the reſt; becauſe this muſt be detrimental to the whole, and injurious to the freedom, learning, arts, manufactures, and commerce of Europe in general. Without, therefore, urging more on this head, it appears, that peace and good neighbourhood, the encouragement of arts and ſciences, and the purſuit of manufactures and commerce, as they are agreeable to the intereſt of every particular ſtate, ſo they are beſt for the whole; and would contribute to render every particular country of Europe infinitely more populous, and the people in all countries much more happy, than any endeavours to aggrandize particular families at the expence of the human ſpecies.

As Europe is now the only part of the world that is juſtly renowned for being the emporium in which all the trade, as it were, of the other parts centers, it will not be improper to paſs alſo in review its commercial correſpondence with the other three parts particularly.

Commerce of Europe relatively to the other quarters of the world.

Reſpecting Africa, its inhabitants, Egypt excepted, being moſtly barbarians, ſuch as the Moors and Mohammedans on the north and north-eaſt part, and the Ethiopians on the north-eaſt, or the mere ſavages and Negroes of the ſouth and weſt parts, they all take no great quantities of merchandizes from Europe; they take very little indeed, in compariſon of the returns made to Europe in exchange. The European goods ſent to Africa are ſuch as the Moors of the coaſt on the ſouth ſhores of the Mediterranean ſea take off, which conſiſt chiefly in ſome Engliſh and French woollen and linen manufactures, and great quantities of toys and baubles; in return for which, Europe receives from that ſide of Africa far more than an equivalent in corn, ſalt, almonds, wax, copper, and a large quantity of very valuable drugs. From the coaſt of Africa, on the ſide of the ocean weſt, and on the ſide of the Indian or Ethiopian ſeas eaſt, Europe receives annually an immenſe treaſure, either brought immediately to them, or carried by the European merchants in their own ſhips, and for their own account to America, or elſewhere; and this is properly the European trade, and conſiſts of gold, elephants teeth, ſlaves, and drugs. By theſe articles (the quantity and value of which is infinitely great,

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great, considering that a great part of them is procured by the exchange of mere toys and trifles, scarce worth naming) the balance of the commerce between Europe and Africa is greatly to the advantage of the former; and that so far, that it is mighty extraordinary and unaccountable that the several maritime nations of Europe do not extend that commerce to a far greater degree; which, it is manifest, might be done with the greatest ease, and to such a height as, perhaps, might equal all the present improvements by colonies and plantations in America, many of which are remote, dangerous, and unhealthy, liable to certain charge, to disaster, and miscarriage: whereas Africa is near hand, every way equal in fertility, superior in its productions, the trade safe, the country in many parts extremely healthy, the people tractable, and the returns immensely rich, and doubtless abounding, if we could once carry our traffic into the center of this great and populous country, with an infinite variety of commercial articles, which the Europeans, at present, are absolutely strangers to. These particulars have been already discussed in our general account of Africa.

America is to be next considered with respect to Europe. This is often reckoned by far the largest country of the four into which the world is generally divided; and, if we may give credit to the measurement of some geographers, it is equal to the other three, and beyond them all, perhaps, in its extent. And it is found, by the experience of commerce, to be infinitely beyond them all in its produce, either on its surface, or from its bowels; for as to manufactures, and the labour of the people, America being unimproved, and the people therein mostly unemployed, that part is not scarce begun: so that Europe and Asia, in this respect, go infinitely beyond it. What may be the consequence hereafter, we would not conjecture. As the land of America is the property of Europe, so is the commerce; and all the wealth of the country passes yearly away, like a tribute, to the several parts of Europe to which the various parts of America belong. And though it is true, that the wealth of America goes away as a tribute to Europe, yet it is also true, that it goes thither by way of commerce too, and in return for the manufactures of Europe, which are sent to them in America for their supply. In a word, the Europeans receive the whole product of the country, and send the Americans, in lieu thereof, a few cloaths to wear; and these very cloaths are chiefly for the use of the Europeans set-

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tled there for maintaining the poſſeſſion as lords of the country; and who, having diſpoſſeſſed the native inhabitants, and driven them into corners, rule them with a rod of iron, eſpecially the Spaniards. The produce of America is a prodigy of wealth, immeaſurable in its quantity, and inexpreſſible in its value. It conſiſts chiefly of gold, ſilver, pearl, emeralds, hides of beaſts, tobacco, ſugar, cacao, cochineal, indigo, peltry, drugs, ſpice, cotton, dyers woods, fiſh, and ſundry other articles. Theſe are returned to Europe in its proper diviſions, thus: the gold chiefly to Portugal from the Braſils, which is afterwards diſſeminated in the courſe of the Portugal trade, to divers other parts of Europe; the ſilver to Spain, from the ſhores of the South Seas, and from Mexico and Peru, which alſo is diſperſed throughout the other parts of Europe, in the channels of the Spaniſh commerce. The fiſh from Newfoundland is ſent to various parts of Europe; and the other articles, which are no inconſiderable object, are always diſpoſed of to great profit by their reſpective proprietors. Upon the whole of this commerce, it is certain, that Europe alſo is the gainer, and that to an exceſs ſcarce to be conceived; the balance being ſo great in its favour, that it has, together with the African wealth, immenſely enriched and aggrandized all the European nations that have any great concern in theſe capital branches of commerce.

Aſia is likewiſe a country extremely rich in its product, though, in that reſpect, not be compared with either of the former two; but it is rendered ſo by the prodigious numbers, and inimitable diligence, induſtry, and application of its inhabitants, who are ſo circumſtanced, that they call for little from any other part of the world; and they are ſo indefatigable, aſſiduous, and ingenious, in the mechanic and manufactural arts, ſo amply ſupplied by nature with materials, and their workmanſhip is ſo extremely cheap, that they are able to fill the whole world with their manufactures and produce: by which means, the ſtate of trade between Europe and Aſia ſtands thus, as we have before, in ſome meaſure, obſerved, in treating of Africa in general: Europe calls for a great variety of goods from Aſia, great quantities of which are diſperſed into America and Africa, by way of barter and exchange for the productions of theſe parts of the world; ſo that although a conſiderable part of the ſilver that comes from America is ſent to Aſia for their produce and manufactures, yet, as ſilver is one of the plentiful productions of America,

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America, it is the ſame thing as the American barterıng any other commodity for the Aſiatic commodities; and, therefore, the trade of Aſia cannot be ſo injurious to the wealth of Europe as ſome have been wont to apprehend. For, let it be ſuppoſed, that every ounce of ſilver that was ever produced in America, centered in Europe, and was in circulation, it is to be queſtioned whether Europe would be ever the richer; and the comparative ſtate of the riches of theſe European nations who ſhared in the American ſilver, would be the ſame as it is at preſent; the labour and manufactures of theſe nations in Europe would be ſo much dearer in their recriprocal barter and exchanges of produce and manufactures with each other, which would ſtill keep up the ſame comparative equality, with reſpect to their riches. But if the riches of nations ſo much conſiſt in the plenty of ſilver, as ſome are pleaſed to think, the immenſe quantity of wrought plate, which is at preſent in Europe, demonſtrates, that all the ſilver from America has not been ſent to Aſia: an immenſe quantity of it lies dead in theſe articles; and it may, perhaps, be queſtioned, whether theſe nations would be ever the richer, if all the wrought plate among them was coined into money, and preſerved as long as the courſe of trade would permit, in their commercial circulation. If the trade of Aſia, had, for a ſeries of years been ſo diſadvantageous to Europe, as is by ſome ſuggeſted, it would certainly have greatly impoveriſhed all theſe nations therein concerned, which does not appear to be the caſe: on the contrary, not only thoſe who have been long intereſted in this trade, are zealous to preſerve and increaſe it, but new powers are daily ſtruggling to obtain ſome ſhare of it, which they would hardly do if they were not convinced that this trade, upon the whole, is really beneficial to the reſpective potentates who are engaged in it. Add to this, that the peculiar policy of the Aſiatics, in regard to the importation of ſilver from Europe, may deſerve ſome conſideration; for, though ſilver is a commodity which they take partly in barter for their produce and manufactures, yet, if we are rightly informed, this ſilver is not coined into money, and kept in circulation: no, to prevent this, the princes and great men not only turn a great deal into wrought plate, but bury under ground immenſe quantities; whereby they effectually prevent its coming into their commercial circulation, and conſequently, by that means, prevent a riſe in all the neceſſaries, even luxuries of life, and thereby keep

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keep the price of labour always low and at a ſtand; ſo that by this policy they can afford to ſell their produce and manufactures cheaper than any other nation whatſoever; beſides, it is ſaid, that ſuch is the policy of ſeveral of the governments in the Eaſt Indies, that their prieſts propagate a notion among the people, that the more ſilver they die poſſeſſed of, the happier they will be in a future ſtate; which notion occaſions the ſilver to be hoarded and buried, and thereby kept out of circulation to prevent any riſe in the price of labour and commodities; and this is ſaid to be the occaſion of the ſurpriſing cheapneſs of all their produce and manufactures, when bought at firſt hand, in compariſon to thoſe of the richeſt European nations.

Obſervations on paper circulation, all relating to the premiſſes.

If this principle, upon examination, ſhould be found to be good policy, may not the great paper-circulation of the kingdom of Great Britain in particular, which is occaſioned by our national debts and taxes, deſerve ſerious conſideration? For, if paper circulation, by authority, will anſwer the end of coined money, the more paper there is in circulation by way of transfer, or otherwiſe, the more money there is, in effect, in circulation: and if ſo, do not our debts and taxes, in this reſpect, as well as in others, contribute to keep up the price of labour, and render our produce and manufactures proportionably dearer than otherwiſe they would be? Can any thing, therefore, more importantly concern the intereſts of our commerce, than the exonerating us from our national debts, and, in conſequence thereof, from the payment of thoſe taxes, which are appropriated for the payment of the intereſt and principal? For, when the whole debt ſhall be paid off, and all the paper effects thereby occaſioned be annihilated, and conſequently the public taxes abated, will not all merchandizes fall in their price? That this will prove the caſe, there are two reaſons aſſignable; the firſt is, that when thoſe paper effects, which have now the operation of money, are ſunk, their operation muſt ceaſe of courſe; for, as the value of commodities has riſen by the increaſe of gold and ſilver within theſe hundred and fifty years, ſo would they of neceſſity fall in their price, if our gold and ſilver were conſiderably diminiſhed; the conſequence muſt be the ſame of that which has the operation of money. The ſecond reaſon is very obvious; for goods that are taxed bear a price in proportion to the impoſt upon them. When they are free from this incumbrance, there can be no reaſon why they

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they ſhould not come to their natural value: for inſtance, if the duty on malt be ſix pence per buſhel, when this duty is taken off, malt, of courſe, ſhould be ſix pence a buſhel cheaper than before. The ſame muſt be ſaid of all other commodities that are taxed.

Theſe obſervations may give ſome idea of whatever is neceſſary to be conſidered in regard to Europe in general; but as they will more fully appear by deſcending to particulars, we ſhall now take a view of the different countries and ſtates of Europe, proceeding from weſt to eaſt, and beginning with Spain.

SECT. II.

Of Spain.

Situation, boundaries, and extent of Spain.

SPAIN is ſituate on the moſt weſtern part of all the continent of Europe, and is encompaſſed on every ſide by the ſea, except on the ſide of France, from which it is ſeparated by a continued ridge of mountains called the Pyrenees. On the eaſt and ſouth it is bounded by the Mediterranean, the ſtreights of Gibraltar, and part of the Atlantic Ocean; on the weſt by the ſame ocean; and on the north by the ſea called the Bay of Biſcay, and the Pyrenees. Its ſcite is in the temperate zone, between the 36th and 44th degrees of north latitudes, and, conſequently, under the ſixth, ſeventh, and eighth climates; and in length it extends from the 10th degree of weſt to the 3d degree of eaſt longitude, that is 13 degrees from eaſt to weſt, and nine degrees from north to ſouth.

Diviſions.

This kingdom is divided into fourteen provinces, viz. Galicia, Aſturias, Biſcay, Navarre, Arragon, Catalonia, Valencia, New Caſtile, Old Caſtile, Leon, Eſtramadura, Andaluſia, Granada, and Murcia.

Soil and produce.

The ſoil of Spain has been miſrepreſented as dry and barren by ſeveral writers, who appear to have had no knowlege of it. We may even affirm, that its moſt mountainous and barren parts do produce ſomething for uſe. Some are covered with ſtately trees of ſeveral ſorts, either for timber or fuel. The rocky parts abound with wild thyme, marjoram, and other aromatic herbs, which ſerve to feed a great number of ſheep and goats, and give their milk and fleſh a more exquiſite flavour than any which are fed on the richeſt paſtures; and if theſe happen to be ſcorched with too much heat in ſummer, the cattle are driven

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driven down to the sides of the hills, where they find plenty of those herbs, and meadow-grounds well watered by the great number of rivers with which the country abounds; so that at the worst, they never want a sufficient quantity of herbage to supply their numerous flocks. Other mountainous and rocky lands produce quantities of a famed plant called by them esparto, of which they make all kinds of ropes and other cordage. The Spanish wheat is inferior to none, if not the very best in Europe, and the common product of it more than the natives can consume. Their barley is very good, and in such plenty, that it is the common grain for their horses and mules, instead of oats, which are here very scarce; and the straw of it serves them likewise instead of hay, of which they make hardly any throughout the kingdom. Wine they likewise have in such abundance, that the poorest people drink it; and few are unacquainted with the goodness and great variety of it. As for fruits, they not only have the different sorts in much higher perfection, which either naturally grow, or which we cultivate with so much pains here in England, but also many others, which, with all our art, cannot be brought by us to any tolerable ripeness, and with which we are more easily supplied from them. The same may be said of their herbs, flowers, and medicinal plants, which, though excellent in their kinds, grow most of them wild here, when, in other places, they could not be produced without great art and industry.

Other valuable articles and commodities for which Spain is remarkable.

Their oil, wax, and honey, are allowed to be as good as any in the world. Few countries exceed this for plenty, goodness, and variety of fowl, both wild and tame; and of four-footed game, as deer, both red and fallow, hares, rabbets, and particularly wild boars. As for their tame swine, those who have had experience of it, allow that the Spanish bacon exceeds even that of Westphalia. Their sheep are most exquisite in taste, but they are still more valuable for their incomparable wool, which exceeds any in Europe. Above all, we must not forget their horses, greatly famed for their exceeding celerity. The Spaniards were, from the earliest ages, very curious in their breeding of good horses, and very dexterous in the use and management of them, especially in the field. As for the other services of that useful creature, such as carrying, drawing, plowing, they have great numbers of mules, which seem much better fitted by nature for such drudgery, as well as for going over the most craggy and moun-

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mountainous parts of the country; being both larger, ſtronger, and ſurer-footed, than the horſes, though not near ſo ſwift: many of them are ſixteen, and ſome even ſeventeen hands high, and carry very heavy burdens over ſuch rocky parts, and with ſuch eaſe and ſteadineſs, as is quite aſtoniſhing to thoſe who are not accuſtomed to them.

Silk and other manufactures. The ſilken manufacture is at preſent ſo encouraged in Spain, that, we are told, above a million of people are employed in feeding, gathering, and curing ſilk-worms; and in ſpinning, weaving, and making all kinds of ſilks. The ſame may be ſaid of their cotton, hemp, and flax, which likewiſe grow here in large quantities, and employ a proportionable number of hands; not to mention their ſcarlet dye, ſaffron, ſugar, pitch, roſin, and other commodities that grow above ground.

Mines, minerals, &c. If we dive into the bowels of the earth, we ſhall find gold, ſilver, quickſilver (which latter they ſend in large quantities into the Weſt Indies), lead, copper, and excellent iron, the beſt of which is dug from the mountains of Biſcay, and is ſent all over Europe, as exceeding any other in goodneſs. They have alſo great plenty of ſulphur, alum, calamine, and other minerals; as likewiſe of jet, agate, cornelian, granate, cryſtal, marble, alabaſter, jaſper, and other ſtones. As to their gold mines, it muſt be owned, that they have quite neglected them ever ſince they have been able to draw ſuch immenſe quantities of that metal from America. But anciently they had it in great plenty, or much greater, out of their own.

Salubrity of the air. The healthfulneſs of this country may be gathered, not only from its excellent ſituation and ſerene ſky, but likewiſe from the ſtoutneſs and longevity of its ancient inhabitants, whilſt they gave themſelves up to a habit of exerciſe and temperance; in which laſt they always did, and do ſtill excel all other nations in Europe.

Having thus far run through all that need be ſaid in general concerning this country, we ſhall now take a view of it, with reſpect to each of its particular kingdoms and provinces, in the ſame order as we have before ranged them.

Province of Galicia. The kingdom of Galicia is waſhed on the weſt by the ocean, on the north by the Cantabrian Sea, or Bay of Biſcay; on the eaſt it borders upon Aſturias and Leon; and on the ſouth upon Portugal, from which it is parted next the ſea by the river Minho. This ſmall kingdom produces wheat, millet, all kinds of herbs, plenty of cattle,

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cattle, especially hogs, whose bacon far exceeds that of Westphalia; strong mules, good horses, though not large; but it is most famed for its noble wines, particularly that of Ribadavia. It has, besides, plenty of firing, and of timber for building houses and ships, with quarries of fine marble, and some flax, of which a pretty good sort of linen is made.

Corunna. Corunna, in this province, called by our seamen the Groyne, is a famed ancient sea-port, on the Bay of Biscay. By its situation, it is well fenced against the winds, and against the enemy, by two strong castles. It stands between the two famed promontories of Finisterre and Ortegal, and is wealthy, being a place of considerable trade.

Province of Asturias. The principality of Asturias lies on the north side along the Bay of Biscay, and borders on the west on Galicia; on the south it is divided from Castile and Leon by a ridge of mountains, called the Asturian mountains; on the coast it reaches to the port Llanes, now Santillana, where it joins a narrow slip of land belonging to Old Castile, which runs into the sea between Asturias and Biscay. The whole length of Asturias is about one hundred and thirty-five miles, and breadth sixty; and it is generally divided into two parts or districts, the one called Asturias de Orviedo, and the other Santillana. But it is farther subdivided into seven merindades, or liberties, besides a little province called Liebana, about twenty-seven miles long, and twelve broad. It is one of the most craggy and mountainous parts of Spain, excessive high, and almost inaccessible. The mountains are called Europæ, and are in full front of the sea, but produce plenty of corn, wine, fruit, cattle, and game. This country gives a title to the eldest son of Spain, who is styled, prince of the Asturias.

Province of Biscay. The lordship of Biscay, as generally taken, is divided into three parts, viz. Biscay, properly so called, Guipuscoa, and Alava. The whole is bounded on the west by that slip of Old Castile which reaches to the sea; the ridge of the Asturian mountains branching from the Pyrenees, parts it from Old Castile on the south-east, as the same mountains do again from Navarre, and the river Cidarso from France on the east; and all the north side is washed by the Cantabrian Sea, called commonly the Bay of Biscay. The country is mountainous and barren, scarce producing any thing but timber for shipping, millet seed, and

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fruit, of which laſt cyder is made in plenty; but its greateſt treaſure lies in its inexhauſtible mines of iron, which is reckoned the beſt in the world, and is tranſported thence into all parts. Here are whole towns where all ſorts of iron-works are carried on, eſpecially ſwords and fire-arms, very elegant, and in great quantities. Bilbao, in Biſcay Proper, though no city, is now the capital of Biſcay, being a place of great trade, by reaſon of its good port, ſmall veſſels coming up to the mole, and others of greater bulk lying farther out. The greateſt export here is of the fine wool brought moſtly from Old Caſtile, and of exquiſite iron, chiefly in bars. The town ſtands ſix miles diſtant from the ſea, on the river Ibaichaval. St. Sebaſtian, in the diſtrict of Guipuſcoa, is another noted port on the Bay of Biſcay, nine miles from Fuentarabia, and almoſt incloſed with rivers, which fall into the ſea in its neighbourhood, particularly that which they call the Branco. The mole will receive two hundred ſhips.

Bilbao and St. Sebaſtian.

Province of Navarre. The kingdom of Navarre is divided from France on the north by the Pyrenees, which alſo cut it into two parts, diſtinguiſhed into Upper and Lower; the former, much the larger, is on the Spaniſh ſide, and belongs to that crown; the other, beyond theſe mountains, is annexed to the crown of France. Spaniſh Navarre borders upon Biſcay and Old Caſtile on the weſt, on Caſtile and Arragon on the ſouth, and eaſtward upon Arragon. Its length is about ninety miles from north to ſouth, and about eighty in breadth from eaſt to weſt. It is divided into the five diſtricts of Pampelona, Tudela, Eſtela, Olite, and Sanguefſa, which are parted by prodigious high mountains, yet yield good corn, and other grain, wine, oil, honey, fruits, and herbs, and afford plenty of food and paſture for their cattle, beſides an infinite number of fowl, both wild and tame. Theſe mountains produce metals and minerals, and had formerly ſeveral rich mines of gold and ſilver, though now either exhauſted or neglected. Here are likewiſe abundance of fine ſprings, hot baths, and other medicinal waters.

Province of Arragon. The kingdom of Arragon is bounded on the north by the Pyrenees, which divide it from France; on the weſt it has Navarre, and New and Old Caſtile; on the ſouth the kingdom of Valentia, and the principality of Catalonia. The whole length from north to ſouth is two hundred and ten miles, and breadth between one hundred and one hundred and twenty. The country is mountainous, but full of delightful and extraordinary fertile vales, which produce

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produce great plenty of wheat, wine, oil, saffron, and fruits of the most delicious kind. It also breeds great numbers of cattle, and abounds with all sorts of fowl, both wild and tame. The mountains are said to have mines of gold, silver, and other metals, but little is made of any of them, except iron. Here are likewise very considerable rivers, and plenty of good fish. The most remarkable of the rivers is the Turio, which fertilizes a great part of the country, not by an overflow like that of the Nile, but by its slow and gentle course, which gives opportunity to the husbandmen and gardeners to cut channels from it to water their lands, insomuch that we are told, their trees will bear fruits three, and often four times a-year; and not only in great plenty, but in such variety, that they reckon no less than four hundred sorts produced in this kingdom. Their orchards, gardens, and pasture-grounds, are likewise much admired for their continual verdure and fertility. In a word, Arragon is, on all these accounts, as well as for the extraordinary serenity of its air, compared to Egypt. The Mediterranean helps very much to enrich the country, both by foreign traffic, and the great quantity of fish which is caught on those coasts.

Saragossa.

Saragossa, the metropolis of this kingdom, is an ancient and opulent city, seated almost in the heart of it, on the bank of the Ebro, and in a fertile and delightful plain, watered with three other rivers, the Xalon, Gallego, and Guerva. It is of an oblong form, is rich and populous, and carries on a great commerce, with a considerable number of trades and manufactures, both within and without the walls.

Province of Catalonia.

Catalonia is bounded on the north by the Pyrenees, by which it is parted from the province of Rousillon in France, on the west by Arragon, and a small part of Valencia; from the first of these it is separated by the rivers Naguera and Mataruna, and a ridge of hills, and from the latter by the river Genia. On the south and east it is washed by the Mediterranean, and has many convenient sea-ports along those shores. The inland is a mixture of plains and mountains; that part next to France is the most mountainous, but farther in, it abounds with delightful and spacious plains. The climate, which reaches from 41 to 43 deg. of north latitude, and from 1 deg. to 30 deg. 20 min. east longitude, is therefore neither so hot as Andalusia, nor so cold as Asturia and the north part of Spain, being moreover sheltered on the north by the Pyrenees, and on the east by the sea. This tempera-

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ture, joined to the many ſtreams and rivers with which the country abounds, makes it exceeding fertile and delightful. Its products are much the ſame with thoſe of Arragon, beſides quarries of marble, alabaſter, and jaſper-ſtone, coral taken out of the ſea, ſalt, and many other commodities.

Barcelona. Barcelona is the capital of this province, and is inferior to few in Europe that are not courts of princes. It is pleaſantly ſeated on the Mediterranean coaſts, a little below the gulf of Lyons, and opens to the ſea in a beautiful ſemicircle, which, together with its eminence and caſtle, and the beauty of its churches and other ſumptuous edifices, affords a moſt delightful proſpect to the ſhips that ſail by or to it, eſpecially as it ſtands between two conſiderable rivers, the Lobregat and Bezes, which pay their tribute to that ſea on each ſide of it. The coaſt it ſtands upon is a good ſafe road, and the port, though rather too ſmall, has rendered it a place of great trade, eſpecially when Indian commodities were brought from Turkey and Egypt through the Mediterranean. Its ſituation is on a ſpacious plain, at the foot of the mountain Monjuyque; and its territory is ſtored with all neceſſaries for ſuſtenance and delight. This province has alſo ſome other towns and cities of conſiderable note, as Tartagona, commodiouſly ſituate near the coaſt of the Mediterranean, with a ſafe harbour for ſmall ſhips; Tortoſa, ſituate on the bank of the Ebro, not far from the ſea, with a good bay formed by that river; Vicque, pleaſantly ſituate, thirty-ſix miles north from Barcelona, in a kind of peninſula, made by the rivers Ter and Naguerra, which almoſt encompaſs it; and Cardona, ſixty miles diſtant from Barcelona, and remarkable for a mountain of ſalt near it, which yields an annual revenue of thirty thouſand pieces of eight. This ſalt is tranſparent, and, when powdered, is exceeding white. All theſe places enjoy a very fertile and delightful territory.

Other places of note.

Province of Valentia. The kingdom of Valentia lies on the eaſt, along the Mediterranean, facing the iſlands of Majorca and Ivica, except only a ſmall part towards Catalonia, which is parted from it by the river Cenia; on the north it has the kingdom of Arragon; on the weſt New Caſtile and Murcia, and the ſmall track of it which runs towards the ſouth, bordering alſo upon the kingdom of Murcia. The greateſt length of Valentia is about two hundred and ten miles, and its greateſt breadth about forty-eight. The whole kingdom is ſo delightful as to be compared to an earthly

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earthly paradiſe, being univerſally allowed to be the moſt charming part of Spain, and by many even of all the world. The ſurpriſing excellence of its ſoil and climate is the cauſe that the whole country is filled with noblemen's and gentlemen's ſeats; and where the land is not employed for the purpoſes of pleaſure, it produces immenſe plenty of corn, wine, oil, honey, flax, and all kind of herbage; alſo flowers and fruit in great variety, the trees being always covered with verdure and bloſſoms. To all which we may add, that the ſugar, rice, and ſilk, it produces, one year with another, is reckoned to amount to three millions of pieces of eight. The mines of gold, ſilver, and other metals, beſides great quantity and variety of precious ſtones, which here formerly amounted to an immenſe value, are now wholly neglected. Here is alſo abundance of alum, the beſt and fineſt white lime, and plenty of cochineal.

Valentia, the noble and ancient capital of this kingdom, *Valentia.* is ſeated on the ſhady banks of the river Turio, over which it has five ſtately bridges, and ſtands about two miles from the ſea. It lies in 39 deg. 20 min. of north latitude, and about 15 min. eaſt longitude. Its diſtance from Madrid, the preſent metropolis of Spain, is about one hundred and eighty miles ſouth-eaſt; from Barcelona, ſouth-weſt, about the ſame number; and ſouth from Saragoſſa about one hundred and thirty-five. Its ſea-port, named Grao, which ſtands on the Mediterranean, about a mile and a half from the city, furniſhes it with every thing either for conveniency or delight, the ſea ſupplying it with an extraordinary variety of fiſh, the neighbouring lake of Albuſera, or *little ſea*, with great abundance of water fowl and freſh-water fiſh; and the fertile country about, with the greateſt plenty of corn, wine, oil, fruits, herbs, and other proviſions. It is enriched by the number of quality and gentry which live in it, by its great commerce, and the variety of manufactures that are carried on, eſpecially the woollen, ſo that the cloth that is made here is reckoned the fineſt in all Spain.

Alicant is another famous city of this kingdom, and a *Alicant.* ſea-port on the Mediterranean, diſtant from Murcia, towards the north-eaſt, forty-two miles, ſixty ſouth from Valentia, and about two hundred and ten from Madrid. It is a place of great trade, by reaſon of its commodious harbour, and well known to the Engliſh, for the delicate wines and delicious fruits which they bring from thence.

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Province of New Caſtile. The kingdom of New Caſtile is bounded on the north by Old Caſtile, from which it is every way divided by mountains, which are only known by the names of the countries they run through. On the eaſt it is parted from Eſtramadura, by another chain of them called Guadaloupe and La Sarena; on the ſouth from Andaluſia, by thoſe called Sierra Morena, and by an imaginary line from Murcia; and on the weſt by the river Segura, and the mountains of Almanza and Requena from Valentia; and from Arragon by thoſe of Maya, Daroka, and Molina. The length of this kingdom from ſouth to north, is about one hundred and eighty miles, and pretty near the ſame in breadth, where wideſt, but its figure is irregular in the latter. The country being all inland, and ſurrounded with ſuch high mountains, which contract the ſun's rays, as it were, into a focus, and, at the ſame time, ſuppreſs the free paſſage of the cooling ſea-breezes, its climate is conſequently hotter in ſummer, and colder in winter, than thoſe which lie along the ſea-coaſts, under the ſame latitude. It is notwithſtanding very healthy, and its ſoil generally fertile.

Madrid. Madrid is the capital of this kingdom, and at preſent of all Spain. It is ſituated on a chain of little hills, ſurrounded with high mountains, and is about ſeven miles in circumference, without walls or fortifications, but containing ſeveral grand ſtreets and ſpacious ſquares. There are three royal palaces here, called the Palace Royal, the Caſa del Campo, and the Buen Retiro. The other places of conſiderable note in New Caſtille are,

Toledo. Toledo, built on a high, ſteep, and craggy rock, almoſt inacceſſible on all ſides, and made much more ſo by the courſe of the river Tagus, which encompaſſes it almoſt round, and over which it has two noble bridges. Here are a great number of merchants, tradeſmen, and artificers, eſpecially in the ſilk and woollen manufactures, which two branches alone are ſaid to employ ten thouſand hands. Toledo is about thirty-ſix miles diſtant from Madrid.

Talavera. Talavera de la Reyna is delightfully ſeated on the river Tagus, thirty-ſix miles weſt from Toledo, and is much famed for its woollen manufacture of ſtuffs, and particularly for an extraordinary kind of fine earthen ware that is made at it.

Province of Old Caſtile. The kingdom of Old Caſtile was formerly part of the Roman Tarraconenſis, and borders all the way on the ſouth to New Caſtile, from which it is divided by a ridge of

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of mountains, which change their names according to the places of note they pass through, as Motina, Siguença, Segovia, &c. by that chain of them which is called Sierra de Tablada, and by those of Pico and Banos, from Estramadura, on the west; and by those of Avala and Perina, with the little rivers of Carrio, Pisuerga, and Heban, from Leon on the north-west. It is parted again on the north from Asturias and Biscay by another ridge of hills branching out from the Pyrenees; only in the center, between these two provinces, it has a narrow slip of land which reaches quite to the Bay of Biscay; lastly, on the east, the Ebro and mountains of Doca, for a considerable length, part it from Navarre and Arragon. The greatest extent of this province from north to south, reaches from 40 deg. 10 min. to 43 deg. 15 min. of latitude, and from 1 deg. 30 min. to 4 deg. 10 min. of west longitude; that is, about one hundred and eighty miles, and near about the same number from east to west; that is, both ways taken where largest, for its figure is very irregular, and not near answerable in other parts. The climate here differs somewhat from that of New Castile, on account of the country being more mountainous, which makes the several parts vary, according to their situation, the vallies being excessive hot, and the upper grounds proportionably cold and bleak: but, upon the whole, the soil is generally good. Snow covers the tops of the mountains here all the summer, and it is carried away and sold in the towns, as is usual through all Spain, to cool their wine.

Valladolid, in this kingdom, stands on the bank of the river Pisuerga, on a pleasant rising ground, and yields a noble prospect by this its fine situation and grand edifices. It is both populous and opulent by means of the woollen manufacture, which is here the best and most considerable in all Spain.

Province of Leon.

The kingdom of Leon, properly so called, is now bounded by the Asturian mountains; on the east it has Old Castile, from which it is divided by the mountains of Pernia, and the rivers Carrio and Pisuerga, as far as the Ebro, then by those of Heban and Reganno, till you come to the mountains Bonilla de la Sierra; on the south, the mountains of Bannos, and another ridge, divide it from Estramadura; and on the west, the rivers of Agueda, Duero, and a chain of mountains part it from Portugal, as does the same ridge of hills continued from Gallicia. The whole extent of Leon from north to south is about one hundred and twenty miles, and from east to west about

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ninety. The river Duero runs almoſt acroſs the middle of it, leaving one half on the north, and the other on the ſouth. As this kingdom lies in the ſame climate and latitude with that of Old Caſtile, to which it is contiguous, and is, like it, intermingled with ridges of high hills, capacious vallies, and champain plains, which occaſion pretty near the ſame degrees of heat and cold, dry and moiſt; its ſoil and temperature differ very little from it. The natives are here alſo robuſt, hardy, laborious, brave, temperate, and lovers of learning. The mountains have ſome minerals, but chiefly quarries of excellent marble and veined alabaſter, jaſper-ſtones, and ſome others of greater value, as turquoiſes, garnets, amethyſts, and the like.

Province of Eſtramadura.

The province of Eſtramadura is divided from Portugal, or from the Portugueſe Eſtramadura, on the weſt, by the rivers Elya, Caya, and ſome others of leſs note; on the north it joins to the kingdom of Leon, without any noted mountains or rivers to part them; on the eaſt the mountains of Banos, Pico, and Guadaloupe, divide it from Old and New Caſtile; and on the ſouth, it is parted from Andaluſia by the chain of hills called Sierra Morena. The rivers Tajo and Guadiana, running through it from eaſt to weſt, divide it into three parts; the moſt northern is that which is beyond the Tajo; the next is between that and the Guadiana, and the laſt is that which is ſouth of the Guadiana. The length of the whole province, from north to ſouth, is one hundred and fifty miles; and breadth, from eaſt to weſt, about one hundred and twenty. The climate, indeed, is extremely hot, and ſomewhat ſultry, being moſtly inland, and wanting thoſe cooling gales which the hills and ſea communicate to the adjacent provinces; but, in all other reſpects, it may be juſtly reckoned the pleaſanteſt and moſt fertile not only in all Spain, but, perhaps, in the world. For an evidence of which we need but inſtance in the celebrated plain called La Vera de Plaſentia, of which it might ſuffice to ſay, that ſeveral of the ancients placed the Elyſian fields in it, as knowing of no place more delicious and beautiful. This noble plain is about thirty-ſix miles in length, and ten in breadth, and ſo ſweetly delightful, that it invites great numbers of nobility and gentry to ſpend the ſummer in it. It has thirteen ſmall towns or villages, and about five thouſand houſes, all beautifully ſituated, and neat, and all the reſt is either covered with the greateſt variety of fruit-trees which Europe affords, or beautifully variegated and diſ-

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poſed into olive-groves, vineyards, gardens, orchards, meadows, and fields, watered with many pleaſant ſprings and ſtreams. Such is, in fine, the product of this valley, that of the territory of only four inconſiderable villages, out of the thirteen that are in it, the product is ſaid to have amounted in one year, to one hundred and fifty tons of oil, five hundred and fifty of wine, ſixty thouſand buſhels of cheſtnuts, an incredible quantity of wheat and other grain; whilſt other parts of it yielded not only the like, or even larger quantities in proportion, of the ſame produce, beſides fruits, flax, &c. and likewiſe abundance of ſilk, wax, honey, ſaffron, beſides paſture, and great numbers of cattle.

Province of Andaluſia.

The province of Andaluſia is divided on the north, from Eſtramadura and New Caſtile, by the Sierra Morena mountains; on the eaſt, from Portugal by the river Chanca, and from Algarve by the Guadiana; on the ſouth it has the ocean, the mouth of the Streights, and part of the Mediterranean; and along the ſouth-eaſt it has the kingdom of Granada. No province in Spain exceeds this in fertility and commerce, and the latter is owing to its maritime ſituation and convenient harbours. Its great quantity of wine and oil is ſo extraordinary, as to be almoſt beyond credit. Its cattle alſo are numberleſs. Fine oranges, citrons, raiſins, almonds, pomegranates, and figs, are the natural growth of this province. To all theſe articles we may add its great plenty of fine ſalt and ſugar, and an excellent breed of horſes.

Seville.

Seville, its capital, is ſituate on the river Guadalquivir, and in one of the moſt beautiful plains of Europe. Here is an India houſe for the regulation of their Weſt India trade, a fine exchange and mint. Silk and ſilver ſtuffs are its moſt conſiderable manufactures, with thoſe of ſoap and pottery ware. Without the city are ſalt-pits and quarries of marble. Along the river are many commodious keys, where ſhips of good burthen may ſafely lie. San Lucar de Barameda, about forty-five miles below Seville, ſerves it as a port. It was much more conſiderable than at preſent, before the Spaniſh Weſt India fleets were allowed to ſet out from, and return to

Cadiz.

Cadiz, which is next in rank to the royal cities. Its ſituation for commerce is very advantageous, the ſpaciouſneſs of the harbour, ſeated upon the ocean ſo near the Mediterranean, drawing thither a concourſe of ſhips and merchants, to purchaſe the product of Spain, and, not long ſince, of the Weſt Indies, which are now firſt brought to

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to this place. There are in this province ſeveral other cities and towns of conſiderable note for trade and manufactures.

Province of Granada. The kingdom of Granada is divided on the north, from the province of Andaluſia, by the mountains of Cazorla, Sierra Morena, Segura, and ſome others; on the eaſt, another chain of mountains divides it from Murcia; on the ſouth it is again contiguous to Andaluſia, without any noted boundaries; and, on the weſt, it is bounded and waſhed by the Mediterranean. The whole length of it from eaſt to weſt is about two hundred and ten miles, but the greateſt breadth exceeds not ſeventy-two. This country beſides thoſe immenſe quantities of corn, wine, oil, fruit, cattle, game, and fiſh, which it has in common with the fineſt provinces in Spain, can boaſt that its moſt craggy mountains are every where covered with vines, fruit-trees in the higheſt perfection, and what would to ſome appear incredible, if not atteſted by ſeveral undoubted eye-witneſſes, that many of its bunches of grapes, like thoſe of the Promiſed Land, are obliged to be carried on a pole between two men; and ſome of them, we are aſſured from perſons of veracity, have weighed forty pounds. Sugar is likewiſe cultivated here in great plenty, and exceeds any in Spain for fineneſs; and ſilk is manufactured in ſuch quantities and great variety, as to be ſufficient to ſerve the whole kingdom, beſides what is exported. Thoſe fields, hills, and other places which are reckoned the moſt barren, are covered with thyme, marjoram, lavender, and all other ſorts of aromatic herbs and odoriferous ſhrubs; ſo that if we conſider this province either with reſpect to its ſurpriſing fertility and plenty of all things for food and delight, or to the admirable proſpect of its hills and dales, or the fragrancy of its fruits and herbs, no country ſeems to approach nearer to the idea we have of an earthly paradiſe than this. If we add to all theſe, its excellent maritime ſituation, number of commodious harbours and ports, and its great exports and imports, the number and opulence of its cities, of which Malaga is the chief, we ſhall eaſily own that this little kingdom is one of the nobleſt and fineſt in all Spain. Near Antequera, in this province, is a famed ſalt-pit, three miles in length and near two in breadth, which ſupplies the whole territory with ſalt. About eight or nine miles from it is a ſpring, that diſſolves the ſtone and brings it away by urine.

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The kingdom of Murcia borders on the north upon New Caſtile, on the weſt it is parted from Granada and Andaluſia by the mountains of Segura, and ſome others, which ſtretch themſelves into the ſea, and partly by the kingdom of Valentia. Its greateſt length from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, is about one hundred miles, and its greateſt breadth, from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, about ſeventy. Its climate is ſomewhat of the hotteſt; but the ſoil, though mountainous, is exceeding fertile, never failing but through extreme drought. But what makes its chief wealth is the great quantity of ſilk which is here made and exported, and employs the greateſt number of hands. Round about the ſpacious and delightful plain, in which its capital of the ſame name is ſituate, are planted an infinite number of mulberry-trees, with the leaves of which the inhabitants feed as many worms as generally make every year two hundred and ten thouſand pounds weight of ſilk. *Province of Murcia.*

Carthagena, in this province, is ſeated on the ſide of a hill, on the Mediterranean coaſt, on the mouth of the river Guadalantin, and is a commodious, as well as one of the moſt noted ſea-ports in Spain. The harbour is well ſheltered from ſtorms by a ſmall iſland called Eſcombrada. There is good plenty of freſh water on the ſhore, and the air here is ſo temperate in ſummer, and ſo mild in winter, that the trees are every where covered with leaves, bloſſoms, and fruit. Beſides theſe productions of the earth on the ſurface, its bowels yield amethyſts, garnets, agates, and other ſuch precious ſtones. *Carthagena.*

We ſhall now paſs from the deſcription of Spain to its hiſtory, and, in this reſpect, it will not be improper to obſerve, that the Roman empire in this country laſted ſomething more than four hundred years after the commencement of the Chriſtian æra, and that the Spaniſh hiſtory is connected with the Roman for near ſix hundred, till that empire was utterly extinct. The Goths entered about the year 400. Himeric, with the Suevi and Alans, conquered Galicia about the the year 308. Theſe Suevi, who gave name to Galicia, ſubdued Portugal about the year 464. Requina, the ſon of Himeric, conquered Biſcay, Andaluſia, and took Saragoſſa and Tarragona in 488. Recaredo was king of Spain in 587, and called a cortes, at which prelates, as well as ſecular lords, aſſiſted, and granted aids to the crown. After him came Witteric, to whom ſucceeded Gundemar, in 610. Siſenando was choſen king in 631, and called a cortes at Toledo. The Moors entered Spain about the *Hiſtory of Spain.*

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year 680, conſequently the Gothic government did not laſt three hundred years. Tarif Abenzarca came in 713.

The three principal northern nations which came here were the Vandals, from whom the province of Andaluſia received its name; the Vandals went afterwards into Africa; the Suevi, who remained long in Galicia, and the Goths, who conquered the whole country, and held it upwards of two hundred years. The Goths poſſeſſed the whole continent of Spain, Mauritania in Africa, and Gallia Gothica, or that part of France which is now corruptly called Languedoc; but, in their turn, they gave place to the Moors or Arabs, whoſe dominion ceaſed when Pelayo was eſtabliſhed in his throne. The Moors conquered all Spain except thoſe mountainous parts, whither ſome bodies of reſolute Chriſtians fled for refuge. Theſe, by degrees, planned and concerted meaſures to ſhake off the Arabic yoke. The firſt ſtand againſt them was made by the mountaineers of Aſturias, who elected king the infant Don Pelayo, ſwearing the nobles over a ſhield, and crying out "Real! real!" This Pelayo was a Gothic prince by birth, ſo that, in ſome meaſure, he reſtored again the Gothic monarchy. He recovered Gijon and Leon, and his ſon got poſſeſſion of part of Portugal, and of all Galicia. From this recovery of Leon came the race of the kings of Oviedo and Leon. The boldneſs and ſucceſs of theſe Chriſtians alarming the Arabs, they attacked them in their different ſtrong holds, in order to cut off their communication one with another. But this produced a very different effect from what they expected. The Chriſtians, to repel the danger that threatened them on every ſide at the ſame time, choſe different heads in different places, who being ſeparate one from the other in their governments, defended their ſubjects independently of one another. This neceſſary reſolution gave riſe to the different kingdoms in Spain. Such was their undoubted origin, though it is impoſſible to ſay at what exact period each kingdom roſe, as there are no ancient monuments remaining ſufficient to prove that point.

The firſt kingdom or monarchy that aroſe after the Mooriſh invaſion, was that, as we have ſaid, of Don Pelayo in the Aſturias, an elective monarchy; and in proportion as the Aſturian princes diſlodged the Saracens of thoſe lands and territories that lay neareſt to them, they changed the ſtyle of their titles; being firſt called kings of Aſturias, then of Oviedo, and laſtly of Leon and Galicia.

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Galicia, until they were incorporated with the kings of Caſtile, by the marriage of queen Donna Sancha Iſabella, ſiſter of king Don Bermudo III. its laſt prince, both of them deſcendents of king Don Alonzo V. who married the daughter of Ferdinand the Great, to whom ſome give the title of emperor, and who was the firſt king of Caſtile.

Of this long period, in which the Chriſtian princes gained ſuch glorious ſucceſſes, and ſingular victories over the infidels, there are ſome ſhort and obſcure accounts in the little chronicles of Don Alonzo III. king of Leon, ſurnamed the Great, and of Alveda, Sampiro, and Don Pelayo.

At the ſame time with theſe Aſturian princes aroſe many nobles, who ſigned their deeds and inſtruments, with the titles of counts or princes, and, among others, thoſe of Caſtile, which ſtate arrived at ſovereignty in the time of the great count Fernan Gonzales, by his heroic valour, glorious triumphs, and extended power. The moſt diſtinguiſhed prince of this houſe was Don Sancho Garcia, whoſe violent death was the cauſe why this houſe united itſelf to the crown of Arragon and Navarre, by the marriage of the princeſs Donna Sancha, his ſiſter, with the king Don Sancho Mayer, whoſe ſecond ſon, Don Fernando, raiſed Caſtile into a kingdom. Caſtile afterwards became an hereditary crown in his lineage, in preference to all the other kingdoms, though inferior in origin to Arragon and Navarre.

The ſeries of chronology of the ſeveral counts is much conteſted between the Spaniſh writers, Arredondo, Arevalo, Sandoval, and others; a diſpute not worth our entering into, ſince it is certain, that from the bravery, ſucceſs, and power with which Don Fernando extended his dominion, ſo as to be ſtyled firſt king of Caſtile, his kingdom became ſo famous, that all the Mooriſh princes acknowleged him for their ſovereign. His ſon was Don Alonzo VI. his grand-daughter was the queen Donna Urraca, with whom ended the barony of Navarre; the crown of Caſtile falling back again into the houſe of the counts of Burgundy (who came from the kings of Italy), by her marriage with the count Don Raymond, her firſt huſband, from which match came their ſon, the great emperor Don Alonzo VII.

This prince left his eſtates divided between his two ſons; to Don Sancho, the eldeſt, whoſe great virtues and untimely

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untimely death gained him the name of the Regretted, he left the kingdom of Caſtile and part of Leon; and to Don Ferdinand, the ſecond, the reſt of Leon, Galicia, and Aſturias. He took upon himſelf the title of king of Spain, pretending that the primogeniture of the Goths, which was re-eſtabliſhed in Pelayo, had centered in himſelf.

Don Sancho dying, was ſucceeded by Don Alonzo the Noble, one of the greateſt princes of his time. It was he who gained the famous battle in the plains of Toloſa over the Moors, deſtroying, as ſome Spaniſh hiſtorians ſay, two hundred thouſand of them at one time; but this number muſt be exaggerated. He dying without iſſue male, the two kingdoms of Caſtile and Toledo went to Donna Berenguela, his eldeſt daughter.

Although the royal barony of Burgundy ended in the queen Donna Berenguela, it returned and united with the kingdoms of Leon, Galicia, and Aſturias, by the marriage of king Don Alonzo, her uncle (who ſucceeded in thoſe kingdoms to king Don Fernando, brother to king Don Alonzo the Noble, her grandfather) from which match came the king San Fernando, from whom deſcended, without interruption, the kings of Caſtile and Arragon, until united in Ferdinand and Iſabella. That king was reputed the wiſeſt prince of his time, and his queen was really the wiſeſt of her ſex in that age. It was his policy that made the kings of Spain great; it was her virtue that made the crown ſo.

There were three things that fell out under their reigns, which entirely altered the face of affairs in Spain, and thereby changed the ſyſtem of Europe. The firſt was the junction of the crowns of Caſtile and Leon, with the dominions that belonged to each of them; and this was brought about by their marriage. The ſecond was the total expulſion of the Moors, which was effected by the conqueſt of Granada, the laſt of thoſe principalities which they had erected in that country; and which the union of their dominions put it in the power of theſe princes to accompliſh. The third was the diſcovery of the New World, and the annexing of it, when diſcovered, to their dominions; by which Spain may be ſaid to commence her maritime power. Thus, in the compaſs of about thirty years, Spain became, beyond all compariſon, the greateſt power in Europe, which before was very inconſiderable. After their death the crown devolved to the auguſt

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guſt houſe of Auſtria, by the marriage of the queen Donna Juana, their eldeſt daughter, to the archduke Don Philip I. from which great union ſprung the emperor Charles V. He was at once emperor of Germany, king of Spain and Naples, maſter of a great part of Italy, and lord of the whole Low Countries, as well thoſe that now form the republic of the United Provinces, as thoſe which were ſtyled the Spaniſh Netherlands, and now belong moſtly to the emperor of Germany.

His ſon, Philip II. who, if ambitious princes are to be ſtyled ſo, was the wiſeſt king, at leaſt the greateſt politician, that Europe ever ſaw, and, in that quality, bade the faireſt for univerſal monarchy; in his pretenſions to which he was rather defeated by Providence, than either by the power or prudence of thoſe that oppoſed him; and yet he had to deal with ſome of the greateſt princes that ever ruled in this part of the world. The mighty power which he eſtabliſhed dwindled away and ſunk to nothing under his ſucceſſors Philip III. Philip IV. and Charles II. ſo that at laſt they were protected in the poſſeſſion of their dominions, by thoſe very powers that had been raiſed upon their ruin. A ſtrange revolution this! but worthy of attention; becauſe it ſhews us how the moſt potent governments are enfeebled and brought to decay by all-graſping princes; and how Providence counteracts human policy, ſo as draw events directly contrary to their intentions, from the plans laid down and executed by the ableſt ſtateſmen, to gratify the deſires of the moſt ambitious princes.

As Charles II. of Spain had no iſſue, England, France, and Holland, formed, in 1699, the famous treaty of partition, for dividing the dominions of the crown of Spain upon his death. Each party had, or at leaſt pretended to have, the common view in this treaty, of preventing ſuch a great acceſſion of power from paſſing either into the houſe of Auſtria, or that of Bourbon, already formidable enough of themſelves. This ſtep very ſenſibly affected the court of Spain; Charles II. was ſo much offended at it, that, on his death bed, he ſigned a will, by which he bequeathed all his dominions to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandſon of Lewis XIV. Though that prince had before entered into the partition-treaty, yet, finding the ſucceſſion thus left to his family, he paid no regard to any former engagements or renunciations; but, on the 18th of February, declared his grandſon Philip, king of Spain, who arrived at Madrid on the 14th of April, 1701. This pro-

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proceeding immediately alarmed the maritime powers and the emperor; the former were apprehenſive of Spaniſh America's falling into the hands of the French, and the latter, beſides the injury he imagined done to his own family, dreaded the two great influence of the power of the houſe of Bourbon. A war enſued, and Charles, archduke of Auſtria, was ſoon after ſet up in oppoſition to Philip V. His claim was vigorouſly ſupported by the maritime powers, and at firſt favoured by many of the grandees of Spain. In the third year of this war the king of Portugal and the duke of Savoy joined likewiſe in the alliance againſt Philip; who, in the following campaigns, was driven from his capital by the ſucceſs of the allied forces, and almoſt obliged to abandon Spain. In the end, however, his party prevailed, and, at the peace of Utrecht in 1713, he was acknowleged as king of Spain by all the confederates leagued againſt him, except the emperor. The allies then contented themſelves with ſuch limitations and reſtrictions as might keep the two monarchs of France and Spain diſunited. A treaty of partition may, indeed, be ſaid to have taken place at laſt; for Philip, by the articles of the peace, was only left in poſſeſſion of Spain, its American colonies, and ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies; but the Spaniſh dominions in Italy, and the iſlands of Sicily and Sardinia, were diſmembered from that monarchy, which had alſo loſt the iſland of Minorca and the fortreſs of Gibraltar, both of which places were ceded to Great Britain. The duke of Savoy was put in poſſeſſion of the iſland of Sicily, with the title of king; and the archduke Charles, who two years before had been elected emperor of Germany, held Milan, Naples, and Sardinia, and ſtill kept up his claim to the whole Spaniſh monarchy.

Though Philip, by the peace concluded at Utrecht, was left by the allies poſſeſſor of the greateſt and moſt important part of the Spaniſh dominions, yet ſome obſtinate enemies ſtill remained to be reduced, before he could be ſaid to have fixed the Spaniſh crown ſecurely upon his head. The inhabitants of Catalonia refuſed to acknowlege him, and finding themſelves abandoned by their allies, ſolicited the aſſiſtance of the grand ſignior, in hopes of eſtabliſhing themſelves into an independent republic. Their blind obſtinacy, however, ſerved only to heighten the miſeries and calamities to which they had been greatly expoſed during the whole courſe of the war. After a moſt bloody and ſtubborn defence, they were entirely reduced

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duced by the king's troops, when they were deprived of their ancient privileges, and their country was annexed to the crown of Caſtile, as a conquered province.

The reduction of Catalonia reſtored tranquillity to Spain, which had been harraſſed for twelve years by a moſt cruel and bloody war. Philip, by that conqueſt, finding himſelf quietly ſeated upon the throne, began to turn his thoughts to the reunion of the Italian dominions, which he had ſeen wreſted from him with the utmoſt regret. With a view to this re-union, his firſt wife being dead, he married Elizabeth Farneſe, heireſs of Parma, Placentia, and Tuſcany; which alliance afterwards proved a ſource of new diſſenſions and wars among the princes of Europe; and, to this day, leaves an open field for bloody conteſts.

The new queen brought her father's miniſter into power, who was afterwards ſo well known by the title of cardinal Alberoni. This man, who muſt be allowed a great genius, projected the revival of the Spaniſh power, and the recovery of her Italian dominions, at a time when the former was thought very difficult, and the latter appeared totally impracticable. It is true that he did not abſolutely ſucceed in this ſcheme; but it is not leſs true, that he came much nearer it than any body could have imagined; for he put the affairs of Spain into ſuch order, that ſhe had fleets and armies capable of alarming her neighbours, with which ſhe actually recovered Sardinia, and would have recovered Sicily if the Britiſh naval power had not interpoſed, and given ſuch a blow at Meſſina to his catholic majeſty's maritime forces, as ruined all his ſchemes at once; and, what was ſtill more, obliged his maſter to part with him, and to accede to the quadruple alliance, which was ſet on foot to ſupply the defects of the treaty of Utrecht, and to fix the tranquillity of Europe upon a more ſtable baſis.

Some time after Philip, about the beginning of the year 1724, aſtoniſhed all Europe, by publicly abdicating his crown in favour of his eldeſt ſon Don Lewis, prince of Aſturias, who was then in the ſeventeenth year of his age. Philip, himſelf, though he had not reached his fortieth year, had long been ſick of regal grandeur. From a weakneſs of body and mind, the leaſt application to buſineſs had for ſome years given him a diſguſt; his mind was continually filled with religious ſcruples, which rendered him timorous and indeciſive in every thing; and he

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falſely imagined that a ſceptre was incompatible with a life of integrity.

The Spaniards expreſſed great joy upon the acceſſion of Lewis I. who was endeared to them, not only by being born among them, but by his generoſity, affability, and many other virtues. The public joy, however, was ſoon turned into mourning, by the unexpected death of the king, who died of the ſmall-pox, univerſally regretted, in the eighth month of his reign.

Upon the death of Lewis, Philip being perſuaded to reſume the reins of government, began to meditate new and ſtrange deſigns, or rather ſuch as were infuſed into his mind by the queen and his miniſters. It is generally believed, and not without good grounds, that cardinal Alberoni, who was then at Rome, contrived that amazing ſcene which aſtoniſhed all Europe; at leaſt it is certain, that it was managed and tranſacted by one of his creatures, a man born to make a figure in unquiet times. This was the famous Riperda, who negociated the treaty of Vienna, by which the emperor Charles VI. and king Philip, in whoſe quarrel ſuch ſtreams of blood had been ſhed, and ſuch immenſe treaſures expended, run into a cloſe alliance for the mutual ſupport of each other's intereſt, againſt thoſe very powers which had ſacrificed ſo much for the aggrandizement of both. The true motives to this ſingular meaſure are by many held to remain ſtill a ſecret; but it ſeems to be pretty evident, that the views of the emperor were immediate, and thoſe of Spain more at a diſtance. The former thought, that by this means he ſhould eſtabliſh his Oſtend company, by which he hoped to revive the trade of the Low Countries, though at the expence of his old friends the Dutch; the latter conſented to the aggrandizing of the imperial power, from the flattering expectation that Don Carlos, by marrying the eldeſt archduchеſs, at preſent empreſs and queen of Hungary, would become the ſucceſſor to that branch of the houſe of Auſtria; as himſelf had been of the other, by which he ſeemed to renounce his engagements with France.

This ſtrange turn was more extraordinary, conſidering the time in which it happened, when both France and the maritime powers were labouring to bring about in a rational and effectual manner ſuch an accommodation. Theſe monarchs haſtily, and, in a great meaſure, inconſiderately clapped up, with views only to their private ad-

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advantage. To balance this Vienna alliance, France, the maritime powers, and Pruſſia, entered into the famous treaty of Hanover, in order to provide for their own intereſts, which they thought could never be ſafe while this unnatural conjunction ſubſiſted.

The emperor and the catholic king, or rather his queen (for ſhe was at the bottom of all this), ſeemed determined to perſiſt in the execution of ſchemes from whence they expected to derive ſuch mighty advantages; but the Hanover allies took their meaſures ſo effectually, that they were obliged, after ſome fruitleſs attempts, to ſubmit to the old method of determining all differences by a negociation, which produced the congreſs of Soiſſons.

This congreſs was opened the 14th of June, 1728, but to very little purpoſe, except that it ſerved to ſhew the aſcendency which the French miniſter, cardinal Fleury, had gained by an appearance of probity, and an exterior diſplay of equity and moderation; which demonſtrates, that univerſal monarchy might be attained by any powerful prince, who really poſſeſſes thoſe virtues. But this ſituation growing tireſome to the Britiſh nation, their miniſters entered into a ſecret negotiation with the crown of Spain, ending in the famous treaty of Seville; which it was expected would have determined all differences, and put a period to the labours of the miniſters on both ſides. But this was ſo far from anſwering thoſe ſanguine expectations, that the two next years were taken up in contriving expedients for carrying what was ſtipulated by that treaty into execution.

For the emperor's ſecurity it was before ſettled, that Swiſs, and not Spaniſh troops, ſhould be ſent into Italy, to maintain don Carlos in the countries yielded to him by theſe ſeveral treaties. But the treaty of Seville altered this method, and provided, that Spaniſh troops ſhould be ſubſtituted inſtead of Swiſs. To which the emperor, as it might be reaſonably expected, refuſed his conſent in the moſt poſitive and direct terms. It was to get over this difficulty with him, that new negotiations were neceſſary, and, at length, the thing was brought about. The infant, don Carlos, was ſent to Italy with Spaniſh troops, and received in quality of heir-apparent by the grand-duke of Tuſcany, which, it was hoped, would have contributed much, not only to the pacifying theſe troubles, but ſecuring the peace of Europe, for the preſent age at leaſt. But, as the ableſt politicians are very liable to miſtake, this laſt ſtep proved the cauſe of a war.

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The infant don Carlos arrived in Italy in 1731, and, being in poſſeſſion of all the dominions to which his expectative right had created ſo many diſputes, his mother formed new ſchemes for enlarging his power, and for enabling him to aſſume and maintain the regal dignity. In order to this, ſhe ſet on foot intrigues in France, to engage even the pacific cardinal in a meaſure directly repugnant to his ſyſtem; and ſhe endeavoured to engage the king of Sardinia to falicitate this deſign, by the promiſes of the duchy of Milan. His majeſty had ſome reaſons to wiſh well to the Spaniſh power, becauſe of his being next in the intail of that monarchy; and, he had ſtronger reaſons to diſlike the meaſures of the imperial court, which, in reſpect to him, were not altogether ſo juſt, and by no means ſo grateful or decent as they ought to have been.

Theſe were the motives to a new confederacy, which, upon the death of the king of Poland, in 1733, broke out into a war in Italy; and in the year following, don Carlos, or rather the Spaniſh general, Montemar, conquered the kingdom of Naples, where he fought one deciſive battle at Bitonto, of which, to perpetuate the memory of his victory, he was made duke. As for the iſland of Sicily, the inhabitants, though not very remarkable for their loyalty or ſteadineſs, had long ſhewn an affection for the Spaniſh government, which put don Carlos in poſſeſſion of that country without a ſtroke. The emperor, though he had no aſſiſtance from his allies, made a tolerable defence in Italy; and the circumſtances of things inclining the court of France to a peace, while it was in her power to be well paid for it, Spain was forced to ſubmit, and by this means public quiet was reſtored in 1735. By this peace, don Carlos remained king of the Two Sicilies, and thereby erected a third monarchy in the houſe of Bourbon; but then he relinquiſhed his maternal ſucceſſion, which was (conſidering the different conditions of the countries) perhaps a full equivalent for it. His Sardinian majeſty, who had hazarded much, and whoſe dominions had ſuffered exceſſively by the war, gained very little, if we except his gaining ſuch an experimental knowlege of the good faith of the houſe of Bourbon, as muſt ſcarce have allowed him to truſt it again. France, who pretended to get nothing, got all; for ſhe had Lorrain added to her dominions, without any colour of right, except the moſt inglorious abandoning of king Staniſlaus, choſen a ſecond time king of Poland, could be

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be ſo called. This treaty was concluded at Vienna, with which, except France, none of the contracting powers either were, or had any reaſon to be ſatisfied. After this, king Philip might well be ſuppoſed to have nothing more in view, than to ſpend the remainder of his days in peace; and, indeed, this, very probably, might be all the view he had; but, for his queen, her views were without end. She had made her eldeſt ſon a king, her third a cardinal, and archbiſhop of Toledo, almoſt in his cradle; and, after all this, Europe muſt be once more embroiled, rather than her ſecond ſon, don Philip, ſhould miſs being made an independent prince. To influence France in his favour, ſhe had married him to a French princeſs; and to bring the king of Sardania into her ſcheme, ſhe promiſed him any thing; but to no effect. She endeavoured likewiſe to cajole the court of Great Britain, but to no purpoſe. She then cauſed the king to turn a deaf ear to the complaints that were continually made of depredations committed in the Weſt Indies, which produced at laſt a war between the two nations, extremely prejudicial to their mutual intereſts, and not leſs to her own, had ſhe conſidered them in a true light; but ambition is uſually blind, and the deſire of acquiring defeats the power of diſcovering the means of acquiſition.

Under the misfortunes of this war, and worn out with age and infirmities, Philip V. departed this life on the 11th of July, 1746, in the ſixty-third year of his age, and was ſucceeded by the only ſurviving ſon of his firſt marriage, don Ferdinand. By his ſecond queen, Elizabeth of Farneſe, Philip left three ſons, don Carlos, then king of the Two Sicilies; don Philip, duke of Parma and Placentia; and don Lewis, who not long ſince obtained leave to quit the church. Three daughters by the ſame queen likewiſe ſurvived him, Maria Anna Victoria, queen of Portugal; Maria Thereſa, married to the dauphin, and Maria Antonietta. Maria Thereſa died in child-bed, a few days after her father.

Ferdinand VI. was about thirty-three years of age, when he aſcended the throne. He began his reign with ſeveral acts of popularity, and among others, he aſſigned two days in the week to receive in perſon the petitions and remonſtrances of his ſubjects. It was generally believed upon his acceſſion, that things would have taken entirely a new turn in the court of Spain, and his Catholic majeſty, or at leaſt his miniſters, took ſome pains to keep up this opinion, from whence they reaped very conſiderable

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ſiderable advantages. The war, however, was carried on with vigour, becauſe, as the new king publiſhed in his manifeſtoes, it was very earneſtly recommended to him by his father; and, at the ſame time it was given out, that his Catholic majeſty looked upon it as a point of policy, as well as of duty, to procure his brother an eſtabliſhment in Italy; ſo that it was very quickly diſcerned that a peace was not to be had without it.

In the negotiations that were carried on for peace, the court of Madrid relied implicitly upon that of Verſailles. The marquis de Soto Major acted as the Spaniſh plenipotentiary at Aix la Chapelle, where the ſeventh article, regarding the ceſſions made to the infant don Philip, was indeed the moſt important, and by much the moſt diſputed in the whole treaty; and though it was not adjuſted entirely to the ſatisfaction of the Spaniſhcourt, which preſſed for a general ſettlement of the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guaſtalla, upon the royal infant, and his iſſue, yet the terms were as good as could be reaſonably expected, being confirmed by the moſt authentic acts of the empreſs-queen and the king of Sardinia. Honourable proviſions were beſides made for the allies of Spain, the duke of Modena, and the republic of Genoa. The diſputed points between the Britiſh and Spaniſh commiſſaries were at length finally ſettled by a treaty concluded at Madrid, on the 5th of October, 1750. By this treaty, the king of Great Britain gave up his claim to the four remaining years of the aſſiento-contract, and to all debts the king of Spain owed to the Engliſh company on that account, for an equivalent of one hundred thouſand pounds ſterling. His Catholic majeſty engaged to require from Britiſh ſubjects trading in his ports, no higher duties than they paid in the time of Charles II. of Spain, and to allow the ſame ſubjects to take ſalt on the iſland of Tortuga. All former treaties were confirmed, and the two princes promiſed to aboliſh all innovations that appeared to have been introduced into the reciprocal commerce of both nations. Theſe innovations, however, not being ſpecified, it was the ſame thing as if no mention had been made of them at all; and thus the moſt material differences being ſuffered to remain undecided, moſt unhappily gave riſe to another war.

The remaining years of Ferdinand's reign, after the ſigning of the treaty of Madrid, were very barren of events. The Engliſh court was jealous of his attempts to introduce the woollen manufacture in Spain, and reclaimed

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claimed their workmen in that branch who had paſſed over thither. New diſputes likewiſe aroſe between them, on the account of the Engliſh trafficking with the Indians, of the Moſkito ſhore, who had never ſubmitted to Spain, and claimed to act as a free nation. Ferdinand, at the ſame time, had the mortification to find it impoſſible to introduce a ſpirit of induſtry among his ſubjects, the favours and encouragements of the court being like rain falling upon a ſandy deſert, where there was not a ſeed or plant to be enlivened by it.

In the year 1756, a war breaking out between Great Britain and France, Ferdinand declared, on that occaſion, that he would adhere to the ſtricteſt neutrality; but he was far from obſerving the neutrality he profeſſed; and partially favoured France in a great number of inſtances. His queen, the infanta Mary Magdalena of Portugal, dying about the end of the year 1758, he was ſo affected with grief, that he entirely abandoned himſelf to gloom and melancholy; and neglecting both exerciſe and food, threw himſelf into a dangerous diſtemper, which, after preying upon him for ſeveral months, put a period to his life the year following, on the 10th of Auguſt.

As Ferdinand left no iſſue, he was ſucceed by his brother don Carlos, king of the Two Sicilies, who reſigned that kingdom, and disjointed it from the monarchy of Spain by a ſolemn deed, in favour of his third ſon, don Ferdinand; ſetting aſide his eldeſt ſon on account of his weakneſs of mind, or idiocy, and reſerving his ſecond ſon for the ſucceſſion of Spain. Don Carlos. or Charles III. arrived in Spain in the month of November, and ſoon after entered Madrid in great pomp and ceremony. The tranſactions of the preſent reign, thoſe particularly relating to Great Britain, are recent in every one's memory; ſo that, it need only be obſerved, that whoever will peruſe the letters laid before our parliament, relating to Spain, will plainly perceive the candour of the court of Great Britain, and the ability of her miniſters; and that the Spaniards artfully, and with the greateſt injuſtice, ſought a rupture, for which they afterwards paid very dear, by their loſſes at the Havanna; and by being obliged to deſiſt from their pretenſions to a fiſhery at Newfoundland, and likewiſe to cede to us all Florida, and to allow us to cut logwoods in the bay of Campeachy.

If Spain had been abſolutely detached from, and no way dependent upon France, with which ſhe ſeems now

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rivetted more than ever by the Bourbon family-compact, her power would not have been the object of envy to the reſt of Europe; and the eſtabliſhment of the younger princes of her family in Italy might have been promoted, inſtead of being ſo vigorouſly oppoſed by certain potentates, who do not act either from ambition or caprice, but are influenced purely by motives of ſelf-preſervation, and a juſt regard for the maintenance of that commerce, which is, and muſt be, the baſis of their power.

The face of affairs in Spain has been greatly changed by the acceſſion of the preſent family to the throne, who, without doubt, reaped great advantages from the prodigious efforts made in their favour by the French, who yet made thoſe efforts in favour of a younger branch of their royal family, and not as the natural, or even political allies of the Spaniſh nation; and it is certain, that they have been well paid for it ſince. But the condition to which Spain was reduced both in Europe and America, at the time of the death of Charles II. is a proof that there cannot be a greater misfortune to any people, than for their princes ever to entertain thoughts of univerſal monarchy, whether by actually ſubduing, or by maintaining a general influence over other nations; for the former method will infallibly leave them without men, as the latter muſt neceſſarily leave them without money.

Government of Spain.

The government of Spain was, by its ancient conſtitution, a limited monarchy, of hereditary ſucceſſion, both in males and females. It was limited by its cortes, or parliament, compoſed of repreſentatives ſent from the cities and towns, each of which, according to the old Gothic plan, ſent procurators, or deputies, choſen by and out of the aldermen of their reſpective cities. The eldeſt member for Burgos always acted as ſpeaker for the houſe; though Toledo was a rival to Burgos for that privilege. In order to adjuſt amicably their claims, the king uſed to ſay on opening the ſeſſion of the cortes, "I will ſpeak for Toledo, which will do what I order: but let Burgos ſpeak firſt;" becauſe Burgos was anciently the capital of Caſtile. No act could paſs in this parliament by a majority of voices; it required the unanimous conſent of all the members. All its acts were afterwards carried to the king to be confirmed. The members of this parliament were always aſſembled in a cortes, by letters convocatory from the king and privy-council; and it was diſſolved by a notification from the preſident of that council. But notwithſtanding its diſſolution, a committee of eight members

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bers ſtill remained at court. This cortes has rarely been called ſince the year 1647, when they gave Philip IV. the millones, or general exciſe. Their laſt meeting was in May 1713, when they aſſembled to receive the renunciation of Philip V. to his rights upon the crown of France. This aſſembly was anciently the keeper of the revenues of the crown; but Charles V. and his miniſters, firſt laid them aſide, becauſe they could get no money from them; and having obtained a grant of the ſale of the bull of the cruſado from the pope, they found they could get money without the help of a cortes, and ſo took their leave of an aſſembly which few princes or miniſters are fond of ſeeing, as their power was great, and they could call miniſters ſo ſeverely to an account.

This ancient Spaniſh cortes undoubtedly reſembled our Britiſh parliament; for all the northern nations had originally a like form of government, which was a limited monarchy, and the legiſlative authority was ſo commixt in the king and the eſtates, that no laws could be made, repealed, or ſuſpended, nor any money raiſed upon the ſubject, but with their common conſent. But now this cortes is laid aſide, Spain is no longer a mixt monarchy, but entirely abſolute; the whole government being ſolely in the hands of the king and his miniſters, and the councils, which are altogether at their devotion. This change from mixt to abſolute monarchy was occaſioned by the timidity of the commons of Caſtile, who having in their laſt ſtruggle for expiring freedom, ſupported for ſome time a war againſt the crown, on a ſingle defeat deſerted the noble cauſe of liberty in the moſt abject manner. This war began in the year 1520, and laſted only two years; at which time Charles V. carried his point with a high hand, and told the cortes, he would always have the ſupplies granted firſt, and then he would paſs the bills they petitioned for, and not before, to which they timidly ſubmitted, and voted him four millions of ducats, about forty-eight thouſand pounds ſterling, to be paid in three years.

The writ anciently ſent to each city, as a ſummons to parliament, convened all the prelates, maſters of the military orders of knighthood, earls, rich men, nobles, and procurators of the cities and towns throughout the realm.

The Spaniſh kings, according to the laws of Spain, are declared of age, or out of their minority, on the completion of their fourteenth year. In regulating the ſucceſſion, after the death of Charles II. a medium was obſerved between the Salic law, and the uſage of Caſtile; namely, that

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that any male heir, however diſtant, ſhould inherit before a female, who was to have no right but after the extinction of every male branch.

Laws of Spain. The laws of Spain are compounded chiefly of the Roman civil law, the royal edicts, and probably certain provincial cuſtoms, much in the nature of our common law in England. Much of the feudal and Gothic conſtitutions ſtill remain, the grandees having ſtill their vaſſals, and very extenſive powers over their perſons.

Council of the inquiſition. Beſides their tribunals and courts of juſtice, there is the council of the inquiſition, or, as they call it, the ſupreme office of the holy tribunal, conſiſting of an inquiſitor-general, five counſellors, whereof one muſt be a Dominican friar, a procurator, two ſecretaries of the chamber, two ſecretaries of the council, an alguazil mayor, a receiver, two reporters, two qualificators and conſultors, and a legion of familiars or ſpies. This tribunal is eſtabliſhed at Madrid, but there are alſo other inferior ones in the great cities almoſt all over Spain. Theſe are the great ſtate-curbs that hold the people in ſuch an implicit religious obedience, and preſerve their boaſted uniformity of the Roman Catholic faith. This court was erected in the thirteenth century, about the year 1251. Pope Innocent IV. authoriſed the Dominicans as perpetual inquiſitors. Clement IV. confirmed theſe powers, and enlarged their privileges and tribunals in the year 1265. It was eſtabliſhed in Caſtile under Ferdinand and Iſabella, and in Portugal by John III. in the year 1557. In 1483. Ferdinand obtained a bull to conſtitute the inquiſition in Arragon and Valentia from Sixtus IV. who afterwards extended it all over the Catholic dominions. This holy office uſed anciently to acknowlege only the power of the pope above it, and bade defiance to all other controul. It raiſed itſelf far above the authority of their kings, who were often bridled, humbled, and even puniſhed by it. It then was truly formidable, when ſupported by the united force of papal and royal authority. Their auto de fés, or ſolemn acts of faith, uſed to be exhibited commonly when their princes came of age, or at their acceſſion. But now theſe ſanguinary acts ſeem to be growing out of vogue in Spain. There has not been an auto de fé at Madrid for theſe thirteen or fourteen years; owing to this circumſtance: a Jew and his wife, and a daughter of about thirteen years of age, being condemned to be burnt, while the

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the father and mother were burning, they set the child loose from its fetters, and the priests got round it with a view of converting it by the united force of their rhetoric, and the terror of immediately undergoing the same cruel death. The child, after seeming to listen awhile to their oratory, gave a sudden spring, and vaulted into the midst of the fire; giving a shining example of the force of filial piety and heroic fortitude, equal to that of the most resolute Roman, or the most unshaken martyr. The power of this tribunal is now declining very visibly, and seems hastening to its fall; for the present king of Spain has taken a bolder step to humble the inquisition than any of the Philip's or Charles's who went before him. The inquisitor-general having thought proper in the year 1762, to prohibit a liturgy which the king had licensed, without consulting his majesty about it; the king, with a very proper spirit, put the inquisitor under an arrest, and immediately sent him, guarded with a file of grenadiers, into exile, in a convent at a great distance from Madrid. So determined and resolute a measure as this alarmed the whole body of the clergy; they moved heaven and earth to obtain the inquisitor's recall; but for some time their endeavours had no effect: the king was inflexible. The common people were taught by their priests to say, that his Catholic majesty was no good Catholic in his heart. At length, however, the king restored the inquisitor to his liberty; but, in such a manner, that the prelate had no reason to triumph; for his majesty, at the time of releasing him, published at Madrid an edict, as a curb upon the proceedings of the inquisition.

State of the commerce and manufactures of Spain, so far as they relate to Great Britain.

It is said, that our trade with Old and New Spain is now full one third less than it was about forty years ago; and that the balance and exchange between Spain and Great Britain, are every day more and more turning again the latter. The causes of this decrease are indeed not at all difficult to be discovered or accounted for. Part of it is owing to the extreme avarice and extortion of our own merchants, who, not contented with moderate profits, have kept up the prices of their goods beyond their just proportion, and thereby opened a door for the French and Dutch to undersell us at the Spanish markets. Another reason is, that the price of labour in those two countries is considerably lower than our own, which enables them likewise to afford their goods to the Spaniards at a much cheaper rate than we can do. A third reason is, the alteration introduced during the Spanish war in queen

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in queen Anne's time, when the French crept into that trade, and deprived us of a greater ſhare of it than we ſhall probably be ever able to recover. A fourth reaſon may be, the progreſs which the Spaniards themſelves have made in ſome branches of manufacture; for the encouragement which the kings of the houſe of Bourbon have given to manufactures and arts, has excited ſome few Spaniards to apply themſelves to induſtry and trade. To ſecond this view, the reigning family and the miniſtry alſo in Spain have endeavoured, by means of foreign workmen, to ſet on foot various manufactures; and the great attention they have given to that object, has not been altogether without effect. Notwithſtanding theſe unfavourable circumſtances, our traffic with Spain is ſtill very conſiderable, and chiefly in the following articles. We export to that country large quantities of dried and ſalted fiſh, called by them bacalas; likewiſe broad-cloths, and woollen ſtuffs of various kinds, to a great amount: ſilk ſtuffs, cutlery ware, warlike and naval ſtores, particularly cables and anchors; alſo watches, wrought braſs, and prince's metal toys, mathematical inſtruments, cabinet-work, particularly of mahogany, wrought and unwrought tin, leather, lead, corn, dry and ſalted meat, cattle, butter, cheeſe, beer, hats, linen, vitriol, pepper, rice, and other products of our American colonies; and, if we attended to it, we might ſupply them with great quantities of timber from thoſe colonies, as the Spaniards, though they have, in ſome parts, fine woods of excellent oak, yet, from their inexperteſs in felling trees, and want of roads, are in a manner entirely deprived of the uſe of them. From Spain we receive the following articles: wine, oil, vinegar, fruits of various kinds, as olives, raiſins of the ſun, raiſins dried with aſhes, called by them paſſas de lexia; raiſins from Almunegar, a city on the coaſt of Andaluſia, famous for that produce; cheſtnuts, almonds, figs, citrons, lemons, oranges, cocoa-nuts, Spaniſh pepper, pomegranates, fine oil, indigo, cochineal, materials for dying, kali, or barilla, and ſoſa, for the making of ſoap and glaſs, chiefly from Alicant; quickſilver, ſome wrought ſilks, particularly from Valentia; and of late raw ſilk, balſam of Peru, vanillas, cake-chocolate of Guajaca, ſarſaparilla, ſalted ſea-brizzle, ſaltpetre, ſalt from Cadiz, ſalt from Port St. Mary's, woollen counterpanes, and a remarkable fine ſort of blankets from Segovia, iron from Biſcay, ſword blades, particularly from Toledo, gun and piſtol barrels from Guipuſcoa and Barcelona, vermillion, borax,

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borax, hams, ſnuff from Seville and the Havannah, ſoap, formerly a conſiderable article, but as we now make it ourſelves, only a trifle; ſeveral roots and drugs of the growth of Spain and America, employed in medicine. Logwood is not ſpecified as an article of importation from Spain; for however it may have been ſuch formerly, we may now hope to ſupply ourſelves with it, as it appears by the ſixteenth article of the preliminaries of the peace of 1763, that we have at length happily obtained the free and unmoleſted liberty of cutting it in the Bay of Honduras, on condition of demoliſhing all our fortications erected there, and in other parts of Spaniſh America. But it were to be wiſhed, that the liberty of cutting it alſo had been extended in expreſs terms to the Bay of Campeachy. Thoſe who know the value of this article, will receive great pleaſure on ſeeing it now well ſettled; for whatever our pretenſions were, we certainly had but a very diſputable right to that important branch of trade; and this will even appear from the peruſal of the memorial of the board of trade, laid before his majeſty king George I. and drawn up expreſsly to prove that claim. We ſhall have occaſion to make ſome farther obſervations on the trade and commerce of Spain, when we come to treat of Spaniſh America.

State of agriculture and population in Spain.

The ſoil of Spain is naturally dry, and is rendered ſtill more ſo, by reaſon of the great heats, which parch up the ſprings and brooks, and by the want of rain to refreſh the earth at proper ſeaſons. Notwithſtanding this inconvenience, ariſing from the dryneſs of the ſoil, and the want of rain, yet, if the inhabitants were induſtrious, and applied themſelves with aſſiduity to the cultivation of their lands, a general abundance might prevail, which is far from being the caſe at preſent, for in many places there is often great ſcarcity of bread. The genius of the people is doubtleſs naturally averſe to toil and labour. Give a Spaniard but his cloak, hat, and ſword, his wine and his bread, and he cares not how little he works. Another great obſtruction to agriculture is the immenſe number of lazy eccleſiaſtics in theſe kingdoms, and the perpetual ſucceſſion of holidays allowed by the church, which deprive the ſtate of one third of the labour that it ought to receive from its ſubjects. To theſe may be added the thinneſs of its population: Spain in general, and Granada in particular, have never recovered that fatal blow of the expulſion of the Moors; the effects of which are felt ſtill more by the addition of civil and religious celibacy.

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bacy. When Philip, on one hand, baniſhed to the amount of one hundred thouſand induſtrious infidels, from a principle of religion, he ought, on the other hand, from a principle of policy, to have ſet open the gates of every nunnery and convent in his dominions. The number of theſe uſeleſs, ſequeſtered males and females, theſe dead limbs of the body politic, are computed by ſome at no leſs than two hundred thouſand; but probably this calculation is much exaggerated. Beſides the bad conſequences of religious celibacy, their thin population is in part owing to the ſterility of their females; and above all, to the vaſt emigrations of their people to America. To remedy theſe defects, the miniſtry, in Philip III's and IV's time, offered great premiums to promote marriage and agriculture. But their imprudent ſchemes of policy in other inſtances, have rendered thoſe patriotic laws almoſt ineffectual. Another unfavourable circumſtance to agriculture is, there being no exportation of corn allowed in Spain from one province to another, except for the king's uſe, the exigencies of the fleet, army, and ſuch occaſions. In conſequence of this bad policy, they are obliged to ſend to Barbary and other parts of Africa, or to England, for corn; for it is morally impoſſible but the harveſt muſt fail annually in ſome one province or other, and then that province muſt be ſupplied from abroad. Indeed, the tranſportation of it to any great diſtance is almoſt impracticable; for their large rivers being left in their natural ſtate, are not navigable. But the military ſpirit of theſe people, which has always prevailed, has no doubt given them a contempt for agriculture. Whoever travels over Spain, will be grieved to ſee ſuch vaſt tracts of fine land turned to ſo little advantage; great part of it not tilled, and that which is, done in ſo careleſs and ſlovenly a manner, as to produce a ſtarved crop of corn, even in ſpots where they might command the moſt abundant harveſt. Their corn is uſually choaked up with ſtones, filth, and weeds of every kind. There cannot be a ſtronger proof given of the fertility of the ſoil in Spain, than its producing ſo much as it does, when it is conſidered how little labour they beſtow upon it. When they plow, they ſcarce do more than juſt ſcratch the ſurface of the ground with a ſlight furrow; after the firſt plowing, they let the earth lie for a few days, and then they ſow the wheat in September, and the barley in February: when this is done, they ſeldom uſe the harrow, but plow it over again, in order to cover the ſeed. Thus it ſtands till June or July,

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July, at which time they cut it down. The barley is rarely bound in ſheafs, and the wheat not always. Neither, however, are carried into barns; but they lay them down on ſome clean dry hillock, and then their mules come with a drag, and tread or beat out the corn; it is a ſhorter method than our threſhing. The winnowing there is done ſtill eaſier, by only throwing the corn up into the air. Yet ſuch is the general indolence of the inhabitants of this country, that many of them will neither reap or gather in their own corn. We ſhould except, however, the induſtrious Gallicians, who, with great numbers out of France from Auvergne and Languedoc, annually travel over all Spain to be its huſbandmen.

Perſons, genius. character, manners, humours, and averſions of the Spaniards.

The Spaniards have in general an olive complexion, are of middle ſtature, rather lean, but well made; have fine eyes, gloſſy black hair, and a ſmall well ſhaped head. Their cloaths are uſually of a very dark colour, and their cloaks almoſt black. This ſhews the natural gravity of the people. This is the general dreſs of the common ſort; for the court and perſons of faſhion have moſt of them adopted the French dreſs and modes. As their natural air is gravity, ſo they have conſequently great coldneſs and reſerve in their deportment; they are therefore very uncommunicative to all, and particularly to ſtrangers. But when once you are become acquainted with them, and have contracted an intimacy, there are not more ſocial, more friendly, or more converſible beings in the world. They are a people of the higheſt notions of honour, even to exceſs, which is a ſtill viſible effect of their ancient love of chivalry, and was the animating ſpirit of that enthuſiaſm. They have great probity and integrity of principle. As they perſevere with much fidelity and zeal in their friendſhips, you will naturally expect to find them warm, reſentful, and implacable in their reſentments. They are generous, liberal, magnificent, and charitable; religious without diſpute, but devout to the greateſt exceſſes of ſuperſtition. If they have any predominant fault, it is, perhaps, that of being rather too high-minded; hence they have entertained, at different periods, the moſt extravagant conceits; ſuch as, that the ſun only roſe and ſet in their dominions; that their language was the only tongue fit to addreſs the Almighty with; and that they were the peculiar favourites of heaven. They formerly thought, that wiſdom, glory, power, riches, and dominion, were their ſole monopoly; but the experience of two or three centuries paſt has contributed to ſhew the

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fondneſs of all theſe deluſions. The open and avowed attempts of Spain's Auſtrian princes graſping at univerſal monarchy; the ſecret and more concealed ambition of the Bourbon line, with all their plans of refined policy, have been, as Shakſpeare calls it, like the baſeleſs fabric of a viſion. It has been owing to theſe lofty conceits, that they are ſtill poſſeſſed with the higheſt notions of nobility, family, and blood. The mountaineer of Aſturias, though a peaſant, will plume himſelf as much upon his genealogy and deſcent, as the firſt grandee; and the Caſtilian, with his coat armour, looks upon the Gallician with ſovereign contempt. The profeſſion of arms is their chief delight; to this darling paſſion, commerce, manufactures, and agriculture, have been always ſacrificed. They bear all hardſhips with the moſt unremiting patience, and can endure heat, cold and even hunger, with ſome degree of chearfulneſs. They have courage and conſtancy ſufficient for the moſt hazardous undertakings; and though naturally ſlow, yet when once put in action, purſue their object with great warmth and perſeverance. Bigotry has been very prejudicial to the Spaniards, and not only in religion, but in the arts and ſciences, and has greatly retarded their advancement in learning. It is impoſſible that thoſe who are too blindly attached to the opinions of the ancients, ſhould make any great figure among the moderns. To politics the Spaniards have a natural inclination; they ſtudy and underſtand the political intereſts of their country thoroughly; even the common peaſants will ſometimes make reflections on public affairs, that would be not unworthy of a ſenator in the cortes.

The taſte for gallantry and dancing prevails in Spain univerſally; they are the two ruling paſſions of the country. Jealouſy, ever ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon, has ſlept in peace. It is obſervable, that in proportion as manners become more civilized, that furious paſſion always loſes its force. Dancing is ſo much their favourite entertainment, that their graveſt matrons never think themſelves excluded by age from this diverſion. You may ſee the grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the ſame country dance; the Engliſh, on the contrary, give dancing to youth, and leave cards to age. Moſt of the Spaniards take their ſieſto, or ſleep after dinner; maſs in the morning, dinner at noon, and the evening's airing, generally finiſh the round of their day. Though it is the cuſtom of the country for the men and women to wear in the ſtreet and at maſs all the ſame dreſs, yet the ladies in

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in private visits wear as much variety of dress, and of a much richer sort than those in England; but to a people of gallantry, the advantage of all wearing the same uniform in public, is easy to be conceived. The married ladies in Spain have each their professed lover, just as the Italian ladies have their cicisbeo. Their evening's airing is insipid to the last degree; you see nothing but a string of coaches following one another, filled with people of fashion: here a duke and his confessor; there a couple of smart young abbés tête à tête; here a whole family grouped together, just like a Dutch picture, husband and wife, children and servants, wet nurses and dry all together. When they take their airing on gala, or court days, all their footmen are then dressed in laced liveries, with plumes of feathers in their hats. The number of servants kept by the grandees and people of the first fashion is immoderate. Some of the Spanish grandees retain to the number of three or four hundred, and the English ambassador, in compliance with the taste of the country, keeps near a hundred.

SECT. III.

Of Portugal.

Boundaries and extent of Portugal.

THE kingdom of Portugal borders northwards on Gallicia in Spain, and is divided from it by the Minho, next the sea, and by some small rivers and hills farther up land towards the east; the west and south sides are washed by the ocean, including the little kingdom of Algarve on the south; and on the west the Guadiana parts the said little kingdom from Andalusia, from whence drawing a line northwards, Portugal borders on Andalusia, Estramadura, and Leon. The whole extent of it from north to south is three hundred miles, that is, from 37 to 42 degrees of latitude; from east to west, where broadest, which is about the middle, it is about one hundred and twenty miles, that is, from 7 to 9 deg. west longitude, and where narrowest next Algarve, about sixty.

Soil, produce, &c.

The soil of Portugal is, perhaps, the very worst in all Spain, yet not universally so. Upon the whole, it never produces corn enough to maintain its inhabitants, but must be supplied either from Spain or from England, and other

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northern countries. Paſture is no leſs ſcarce, if we except ſome of the northern parts, as the province called Entre Duero e Minho, and along the banks of ſome of their great rivers, where the beſt and largeſt cattle are fed; but on the ſouthern ſide the cattle are very ſcarce, ſmall and lean, though the fleſh is generally good. To make amends for this want of corn and paſture, vaſt quantities of wine are made, which is indeed the beſt commodity of this kingdom, and ſo well known at preſent to all England, that we need ſay the leſs about it. Oil is here likewiſe in great abundance, but far inferior to that we have from other countries, being commonly ſo ſtrong and fetid, that none can uſe it who have been ever accuſtomed to the Spaniſh and Italian. Lemons and oranges alſo grow here, and are exported in great quantities, though the acidity of the latter is nothing near ſo pleaſant as that of thoſe which come from Seville; nor are indeed any of their fruits ſo large or well taſted as thoſe of Spain. Herbs and flowers of all ſorts are here commonly very good, and great quantities of perfumed waters are diſtilled from the odoriferous kinds, which are in great requeſt, being in ſome ſhape or other, uſed in almoſt every thing that is eaten, drank, or worn. This country produces likewiſe great quantities of alum, white marble, alabaſter, and eſpecially ſalt, of which immenſe loads are continually exported from the port of Setuval, for moſt of the northern nations. Here alſo are ſeveral mineral and medicinal ſprings, of great virtue, and much reſorted to, ſome of a hot, and others of a cold nature. The woollen manufactures of Portugal are of ſo indifferent and coarſe a nature, that they are only worn by the meaner ſort, being ſcarce fit for any other. Their ſilks are, in ſome places, much better, but far inferior not only in beauty and goodneſs, but in quantity, to thoſe which are made in Spain. The country in general is well peopled, and filled with goodly cities, towns, and villages, though not every where alike.

Divided into ſix provinces. Portugal is divided into ſix provinces, including the little kingdom of Algarve. Theſe provinces, beginning at the north, and deſcending to the ſouth, are 1. Entre Duero e Minho. 2. Tra los Montes. 3. Beira. 4. Eſtramadura. 5. Alentejo. And 6. Algarve.

Province of Entre Duero e Minho. The province of Entre Duero e Minho, has the Minho on the north, to divide it from Gallicia, and the Duero on the ſouth, which parts it from Beira; on the weſt it

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is bounded by the ocean, and on the east by a ridge of mountains, which separates it from the province of Tra los Montes. Its utmost length does not exceed thirty-six miles, greatest breadth thirty, and where narrowest twelve or fourteen; but though small, it is the best inhabited, and has the greatest number of cities, towns, and villages, of all the rest, in proportion; besides that, it is one of the pleasantest and most fertile, though mountainous, having many other rivers besides the two that inclose it, and a vast number of rivulets and sweet springs to water it; which, as above hinted, make it abound in good pasture more than any other parts of Portugal, though inferior in this respect to many of the provinces of Spain. Together with the pastures, the plains are every where covered with vines, fruit, and other trees of all sorts, and the country well supplied with every necessary of life, except as before observed, it has not a sufficient quantity of corn for its inhabitants.

Braga, and Porto or Oporto, are its chief cities. The latter is a famed sea-port on the north side of the Duero, about three miles from the sea, and pleasantly situated on a rocky ground, that river washing its walls. The port, a very commodious one, is so well known and frequented by our nation, that we need say the less of it. The harbour is safe against all winds, but when the floods come down, no anchor can hold the ships; at which time they are forced to squeeze and fasten them to each other along the walls, to avoid the fury of the torrent. The city stands in 41 deg. 10 min. north latitude, and 8 deg. 30 min. west longitude. Its distance is one hundred and twenty miles north from Lisbon. *Oporto.*

The province Tra los Montes is so called, because seated on the other side of that chain of hills which parts it on the west from that of Entre Duero e Minho, just described; on the north it borders on Gallicia, and eastward on the kingdom of Leon; and on the south the Duero parts it from Beira. Its length from east to west, is at most about seventy-four miles, and breath near sixty. This country is dry and barren, having but few rivers to water it, and none of them of any considerable length or breadth. For this reason the territory has but few corn fields, except rye and some barley, but yields plenty of wine, fruits of several sorts, and abundance of game. The cities of this province are Braganza and Miranda. *Province of Tra los Montes.*

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Province of Beira. The province of Beira is divided on the north from the province Entre Duero e Minho by the former of thoſe rivers; it is bounded by the ocean on the weſt, and by ſome part of Eſtramadura; on the ſouth by another part of that province, and by the Tagus; and on the eaſt it runs contiguous to the Spaniſh Eſtramadura and the kingdom of Leon. The country, though not ſo rich and fertile as ſome in this kingdom, is yet capable of producing good corn, wine, and other uſeful commodities, if rightly cultivated.

Coimbra and Aveiro. Coimbra, once the metropolis of Portugal, is ſtill one of the fineſt cities in this kingdom, and no leſs celebrated for its famed univerſity. It is pleaſantly ſeated on the north ſide of the river Mondego, about ninety miles north from Liſbon. Aveiro is a conſiderable market-town, commodiouſly ſeated in a plain, upon a bay at the mouth of a creek, on the weſtern coaſt, and made by a ſmall river, which divides the town into two parts, joined by a ſtately bridge. In this creek, which is pretty large, and forms a kind of haven, is made a vaſt quantity of ſalt, which is exported, ſome into other parts of the kingdom, and the reſt into foreign parts. It ſtands about a hundred and one miles from Liſbon.

Province of Eſtramadura. The province of Eſtramadura is a long narrow ſlip, running along the ſea-coaſt, and reaching from the mouth of the river Mondego northwardly down, and ſouthwardly quite below the town of Setuval; ſo that it extends from the latter to the former, that is, from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, about one hundred and ten miles. In breath it is ſcarce fifty, and in ſome places much narrower; and its utmoſt verge weſtward, which is the Cape la Roca, or, as our ſeamen term it, the Rock of Liſbon, lies under 9 deg. 45 min. weſt longitude. It is bounded on the north by the Mondego above mentioned, which parts it from Beira and the province of Alentejo; and it has again Beira on the eaſt, and the ocean on the weſt. The land is here for the moſt part the very beſt in Portugal, and the climate very pleaſant and mild, by being ſo near the weſtern ocean. It produces wheat and other grain in greater plenty than the other provinces, abundance of wine, oil, fruits of all ſorts, eſpecially citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, figs, dates, almonds, &c. upon which account the people here live much better, and are above want. Here are alſo greater variety of manufactures carried on, and a much larger ſhare of trade and commerce; all

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all which is owing partly to its commodious ſituation and ſea-ports, to its proximity to the city of Liſbon, the metropolis of this province and kingdom, and to the noble river Tagus, which is navigable a conſiderable number of leagues inland, and is therefore the means of a very conſiderable commerce from that metropolis.

Liſbon. Liſbon, the head city of this kingdom, the reſidence of its monarchs, the great ſeat of all the courts of juſtice, the metropolitan ſee of Portugal, the moſt noble and celebrated univerſity of it, an emporium of the world, the receptacle of all the richeſt merchandizes of the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, and the beſt ſea-port in the whole kingdom, is ſituate in 38 deg. 46 min. of latitude, and about 9 deg. of weſt longitude, in an excellent air; and though the climate is rather inclinable to heat, yet it is refreſhed by the delightful breezes of the ſea, and of the river Tagus, on the banks of which it is pleaſantly and ſtrongly ſeated, and which conveys to it a very great ſhare of the wealth of Aſia and America, as well as the chief commodities of Europe and Africa. The harbour is one of the moſt commodious in Europe, lying upon the weſtern ocean, and capacious enough of itſelf to contain ten thouſand ſhips, all riding in ſafety, and without incumbering each other; and it carries water enough for the largeſt veſſels to anchor before the windows of the royal palace. The entrance of it is defended by two handſome forts, the firſt ſeated on the ſhore, the other ſtanding oppoſite to it, on a ſhelf, in the midſt of the water. Beſides theſe, nature has provided it with another defence, which is the bar, very dangerous to paſs without pilots belonging to the place. Within this appears a vaſt capacious bay, which contracts itſelf as it draws near the city.

Earthquake at Liſbon. The city of Liſbon, built, like old Rome, on ſeveral little hills, is one of the fineſt views from the water that can poſſibly be imagined. As you approach nearer to it, the tragical effects, the havock of that dreadful earthquake which happened on the 1ſt of November, 1755, cannot but touch every beholder with ſentiments of pain. After landing, you paſs through ſome ſtreets, near a mile in length, where the houſes all fell on each ſide, and many of them ſtill lie in that undiſtinguiſhed heap of ruin, into which they ſunk at the firſt convulſive ſhocks. Not that it is to be imagined, that the greateſt part of that fine city fell on that fatal morning; ſo far from this, that not above one fourth part of it was deſtroyed; for it prevailed more in one particular quarter than the reſt; and there

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the desolation was almost universal, scarce a house or building remaining that was not thrown down. In the other parts of the city, some single ill-conditioned or ruinous buildings fell, but the rest stood; and there is scarce a street but shores and props may be seen fixed to the buildings on each side, to prevent their falling even now, having suffered so much from the shocks they had received. St. Ubes, not far from Lisbon, was also destroyed. The shocks continued for several days after, and were felt in most parts of Europe; and the waters were agitated in many places in a most surprising manner. The cities of Fez and Morocco received likewise considerable damage from the several shocks they had in those parts, where numbers of the inhabitants were destroyed. Considering how much time has elapsed since this earthquake, very little of the city of Lisbon has been rebuilt in proportion. They have built a custom-house, an arsenal, a theatre, and some few other buildings. All agree, that the fire occasioned infinitely more havock than the earthquake. Thousands of the inhabitants, unhappily, in the first confusion of their fear, taking the ill-judged step of thronging into the churches, the doors of which being sometimes shut by the violence of the croud, and sometimes locked up by mistake, when the fire seized the roofs of these buildings, these unhappy sufferers were most of them destroyed; some by sheets of lead, that poured like a molten deluge upon their heads, others mashed by the fall of the roofs, and the rest burnt alive. One's imagination can scarce form a scene of confusion, horror, and death, more dreadful than this. After the shocks were over, the fire continued burning for many weeks; and it is thought was one principal cause of their escaping the plague, as the putrefaction of the bodies was by that means much less. The calculation of the number that perished, as they kept no registers, must be in a great measure conjectural; but that thousands and ten thousands were destroyed, there is no doubt. The morning on which it happened was most remarkably serene and pleasant, particularly about ten o'clock, and in one quarter of an hour more, all was involved in this dreadful scene of terror and destruction. As this event produced many changes, those among the commercial parts of the city were not the least remarkable. One, who yesterday was at the eve of a bankruptcy, found himself to-day with his books cleared; and hundreds, who lived in ease and affluence, as soon as they had

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had recovered from their firſt panic and diſmay, ſaw want and poverty ſtare them in the face.

Some of the churches, the arſenals, the theatre, and above all, the aqueduct at Liſbon, deſerve the attention of every traveller; the center arch for its height, being one of the nobleſt perhaps in Europe. One thing is remarkable, that during the earthquake this building ſtood the attack, though ſo much affected by the ſhock, that many of the key-ſtones fell ſeveral inches, and hang now only becauſe a ſmall part of the baſe of the key-ſtone was catched by the center's cloſing again. The ſtreets of Liſbon are cleaner than thoſe of Madrid, but diſagreeable, from the continual aſcents and deſcents one is obliged to make. Moſt of the houſes have the jalouſie, or *lattice*. The women, though more beautiful, are not ſo much ſeen in public as the Spaniſh, and their head-dreſs is much prettier. There are few fires in chimneys in the rooms at Liſbon; the want of them is ſupplied by wearing a cloak conſtantly in the houſe, or perhaps by a brazier; though the cold is ſometimes very piercing. The view of the Tagus, from thoſe windows of the town which command it, is remarkable pleaſing; the bean-cods, or ſmall-boats, which ſail with any wind or tide, and are continually paſſing; the river couded with ſhipping of all nations; the coming in of a Bahia or Braſil fleet; the opening of the river towards the bar, with the caſtle of Bellem on the right, the king's palace, and the caſtle of St. Julian's on the left; all together form a very fine and agreeable view.

The other places of note in this province, are; 1. Setuval, a conſiderable ſea-port on this coaſt, a little below Liſbon, being much reſorted to by moſt northern nations eſpecially, for the vaſt quantities of ſalt that are made here every year. 2. Santarem, forty-two miles north-eaſt from Liſbon, ſituate on a high hill, cloſe to the Tagus. It has on the ſouth ſide a deep valley, with a ſteep winding aſcent to the town, and on the north is a craggy ſolid rock, altogether inacceſſible; but on the weſt it faces a delightful plain, covered with gardens, orchards, and fertile fields, producing a great quantity of corn, oil, and variety of fruits. The Tagus, which is here very broad and navigable, enriches the adjacent country by the channels that are cut from it; inſomuch that we are told by ſome Spaniſh authors, that it yields a prodigious increaſe of wheat and other grain, which are often ſown, cut down, and threſhed, within the ſpace of two months.

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3. Sintra, ſeated near the ſea, at the foot of a ridge of mountains, and by the cape that bears its name, almoſt on the utmoſt weſtern verge of Portugal. The town is juſtly eſteemed the moſt delightful ſpot in the whole kingdom, both for the beauty of its ſituation and proſpect, and for the fruitfulneſs of its territory. The rock on which it ſtands, has a noble quarry of black and white marble, in great requeſt. 4. Alcazar Do Sal, ſituate thirty-five miles ſouth-weſt from Liſbon, on the river Zadao. It is ſo called, from the great quantities of ſalt produced in its environs.

Province of Alentejo. The province of Alentejo borders north on part of Eſtramadura, and of the river Tagus; eaſtward, on the Spaniſh province of Andaluſia and Eſtramadura; on the weſt it is bounded by the ocean, and part of the Portugueſe Eſtramadura; and on the ſouth, by the little kingdom of Algarve. It lies between 37 deg. 30 min. latitude, and about 39 deg. weſt longitude; but ſo irregular, and runs ſo much into the adjacent provinces, that its extent cannot be preciſely ſtated. In the whole it runs, where wideſt, between ninety and a hundred miles; and in ſome places beyond, and in others much leſs than eighty. This country is reckoned the fineſt and moſt fertile in all Portugal, and its inhabitants the wealthieſt and beſt bred. The far greater part are farmers, and the land is ſo rich, and ſo well watered by a number of rivers, which fall either into the Tagus or Guadiana, which two laſt great ones run quite acroſs the province, that they are all wealthy and induſtrious, and have few poor people among them. Its cities and towns of chief note are Evora, Elvas, and Eſtremos. Near the laſt, remarkable for its curious manufacture of red earthen-ware, is a noble ſpring, which throws up ſo much water in ſummer, as ſerves to turn ſeveral mills; and, contrary to all others, is dried up all the winter.

Kingdom of Algarve. The little kingdom of Algarve is that part of Portugal called, by ſome ancient authors, Cuneus, or *Wedge*, being really wedged in by the ocean on the weſt and ſouth; on the eaſt by the Guadiana, which parts it from Andaluſia; on the north, by the mountains called Serra de Algaroc, and Serra de Monchique, which divide it from Alentejo; ſo that it is but ninety miles in length, where longeſt, and but twenty-eight in breadth, where broadeſt. The country, though in general mountainous, produces moſt ſorts of fruits in abundance, but little corn. It is

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the leaſt populous and wealthy part of Portugal, and has no remarkable towns or cities.

The hiſtory of Portugal is blended with that of Spain, until it was recovered from the Moors. Alphonſo, ſixth kind of Leon, having made a conqueſt of the northern provinces of Portugal, conſtituted Henry of Burgundy, a noble volunteer in theſe wars, earl of Portugal, in the year 1093. Alphonſo, ſon of Henry, aſſumed the title of king in 1139, having recovered ſeveral other provinces from the Moors; and his ſucceſſors continued the wars with the Infidels, till they reduced all Portugal. The crown continued in this line till the reign of Ferdinand, upon whoſe death John, his baſtard brother, uſurped the throne, in 1385. This prince invaded Africa, and took the port-town of Ceuta from the Moors. The Madeira iſlands, and the Azores or weſtern iſlands, were alſo diſcovered in this reign, and added to the kingdom of Portugal; with the coaſt of Guinea; and, after a glorious reign of near fifty years, John left the crown to his ſon Edward. His grandſon Alphonſo invaded Morocco, and took the towns of Tangier, Arzilla, Alcaſſar, and ſeveral others on the coaſt of Africa, from the Moors. John II. was the firſt prince who endeavoured to trace out a way to the Eaſt Indies round the coaſt of Africa: leaving no children, he was ſucceeded by his couſin Emanuel, who baniſhed many of the Jews and Moors out of Portugal, and compelled thoſe that remained there to profeſs Chriſtianity, on pain of being made ſlaves. It was in this reign that Portugal arrived at the higheſt pitch of glory, for their fleets paſſed the Cape of Good Hope, the moſt ſouthern promontory of Africa, and planted colonies in the Eaſt Indies, whereby they became ſole maſters of the traffic between India and Europe; which was before carried on through Egypt and the Turkiſh dominions, from whence the Venetians, Genoeſe, and other maritime powers in the Mediterranean, uſed to tranſport the Indian merchandize to Europe, and grew immenſely rich and powerful by that traffic; but have been in a declining way ever ſince the Portugueſe brought the riches of India to Europe by the route of the Cape. The Portugueſe alſo poſſeſſed themſelves of the rich country of Braſil, in South America. John III. the ſon of Emanuel, ſent out a multitude of miſſionaries to convert the eaſtern nations, and among them was the famous Francis Xavier, who planted the Chriſtian religion in India, Perſia, China, and Japan, as well as on the coaſt of Africa, where the Portugueſe

Hiſtory of Portugal.

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Portugueſe have ſtill numerous plantations and ſettlements; and he ſent other miſſionaries to Braſil in America. His grandſon don Sebaſtian tranſported a powerful army into Africa, at the inſtance of Muley Hamet, king of Morocco, who had been depoſed by Muley Malucco; and joining Muley Hamet, they attacked the uſurper with their united forces, but were defeated; and don Sebaſtian, with moſt of the Portugueſe nobility, and Muley Hamet, the depoſed prince, were killed in the field of battle. Muley Malucco the uſurper died of a fever the ſame day. Don Sebaſtian, leaving no iſſue, was ſucceeded by cardinal Henry his uncle, the only ſurviving male of the royal family; and he dying after a ſhort reign of two years, Philip II. of Spain poſſeſſed himſelf of the kingdom of Portugal, in the year 1580, which he claimed in right of his mother, though the Braganza family were deemed to have a better title to the crown.

Portugal remained under the dominion of Spain ſixty years; and it was this that gave occaſion to the Dutch, who had ſhaken off the Spaniſh yoke, to deprive the Portugueſe of their ſettlements in the Indies, on the coaſt of Africa, and, in a great meaſure, of the Braſils; for the Spaniards looking upon Portugal as a conquered kingdom, took but little care of its concerns; and the Portugueſe nobility, who had formerly ſhewn ſo much courage and conſtancy in the ſervice of their native princes, were far from exerting themſelves in the ſame manner for the ſupport of ſtrangers, who they plainly ſaw did not either uſe or wiſh them well. At laſt, tired out with the bad behaviour of thoſe who were ſent to govern them by the court of Madrid, they reſolved to throw off the Spaniſh yoke at all events. John, duke of Braganza, grandſon to that duke who was competitor with king Philip for the kingdom, was raiſed to the throne of Portugal by the title of John IV. His ſubjects were no leſs ſteady and conſtant in ſupporting him upon the throne, than they had been univerſally ready and willing to raiſe him to it, though the Spaniards maintained a long war in hopes of recovering this kingdom; and though the Dutch, notwithſtanding they were then fighting for their own liberties againſt the ſame crown, proſecuted their deſigns in the Indies, and in Braſil, againſt the Portugueſe. It is true that they loſt ſeveral of their remaining ſettlements in Aſia, and that it was with great difficulty they preſerved Goa, Bombay, Diu, and a few inconſiderable places on the coutinent; but in the Braſils they had better fortune; the

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the people preferred their government to that of the Dutch, and in a short time they recovered all they had loſt in that quarter of the world.

We muſt obſerve that, while the Spaniards were maſters of Portugal, their maxims of making the moſt of the kingdom, while in their hands, ruined the trade, ſunk the naval power, and brought the Portugueſe plantations almoſt to nothing. An equal and juſt government is neceſſary, not only to raiſe, but to preſerve theſe advantages to any nation, ſince, whenever that is wanting, they droop, dwindle, and decay, like plants that remain unwatered, or children truſted to a mercenary nurſe, that ſoon loſe their fleſh and colour, plain indications of the pains taken with them by an affectionate mother. To judge from effects may be a bad maxim in morality, but in politics it ſeldom fails.

John IV. died in 1651, without ſeeing an end of that war which his acceſſion had occaſioned. He left his dominions to his ſon Alphonſo VI. then a child, under the tutelage of the queen-dowager his mother. By the peace of the Pyrenees, the French, who had hitherto been the warm, and almoſt the ſole allies of Portugal, engaged to give that crown no farther aſſiſtance; but their great regard to their own intereſt induced them, in direct violation of that article, to ſend the Portugueſe greater aſſiſtance, than they had ever done, under the command of marſhal Schombergh, an officer of ſuch capacity, that it might be truly ſaid his ſingle perſon was equivalent to a ſmall army. He reformed many abuſes, and introduced a new diſcipline among the Portugueſe troops; ſo that, notwithſtanding they had the whole Spaniſh force to deal with, yet they bravely defended their liberties, and gained two ſuch ſignal victories at Eſtremos and Villa Viciosa, as convinced their enemies, that the deſire of freedom may over-balance ſuperiority of numbers. At laſt, in 1668, the French king Lewis XIV. falling, contrary to the faith of treaties, with a great army upon the Low Countries, the Spaniards found themſelves under a neceſſity of making peace with Portugal, which was done under the mediation of king Charles II. of Great Britain, who had married the infanta Catherine, daughter to king John, and ſiſter to king Alphonſo: by this treaty the crown of Spain renounced all her claims and pretenſions to that of Portugal, and ſolemnly acknowleged the rights of the houſe of Braganza, which put an end to a diſputed title, and reſtored peace to this country, after a war,

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war, or at leaſt the interruption of peace, for the ſpace of twenty-eight years.

Alphonſo VI. having attained the years, though not the diſcretion of a man, reſolved to take the government of his dominions into his own hands, though his mother had ruled with great prudence, and himſelf could not but be ſatisfied of his own incapacity, which is ſaid to have been owing to a long indiſpoſition, that ſo much weakened his abilities, both in body and mind, as to render him equally unfit for the duties of a king and of a huſband. Thoſe who had puſhed him upon theſe deſigns, and had no other view than that of governing the kingdom at their own will under his name, began next to infuſe jealouſies of his brother don Pedro, the preſumptive heir of the crown; and are alſo ſaid to have engaged him in ſuch other low and ſhameful intrigues, as obliged the queen, a princeſs of Savoy Nemours, after ſhe had cohabited with him for ſix months, to retire to a convent for the preſervation, as ſhe affirmed, of her honour and her life.

The infant don Pedro, conſidering the incapacity of his brother, the confuſed ſtate of public affairs, and his own great peril, determined, by the advice and with the aſſiſtance and conſent of the principal nobility, to ſecure the perſon of the king, and to take upon himſelf the adminiſtration of the government. This was accordingly done, and not long after the queen left her convent, and a diſpenſation having been obtained from the court of Rome for that purpoſe, eſpouſed the prince don Pedro, who removed Alphonſo to the iſland of Tercera, where he kept him confined under a ſtrong guard; but cauſed him to be treated with the tenderneſs which he owed his brother, and the reſpect that was due to a king. However, ſome malicious tongues, in a few years, reporting the contrary, the prince cauſed him to be brought back to the caſtle of Cintra, within a day's journey of Liſbon, and there, under an eaſy cuſtody, he was ſerved and reſpected as a king. The prince was perſuaded by many to aſſume that title himſelf, but inflexibly declined it, contenting himſelf with that of regent till his brother died, which was in 1683.

King Pedro had by his firſt queen, who had been his brother's wife, only one daughter, and by his ſecond the princeſs Maria Sophia, daughter to the elector palatine John, prince of Braſil, and the infants don Francis, don Antonio, and don Emanuel. Don Pedro continued for many years to govern his ſubjects with great juſtice and moderation.

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moderation. A little before the peace of Ryſwick, he offered his mediation to Lewis XIV. but received ſuch an anſwer, as ſhewed plainly enough that France was reſolved to reject it with a kind of diſdain. The Portugueſe monarch thought fit to paſs by the affront for the preſent; but it afterwards coſt France dear. When Philip V. mounted the throne of Spain, the friendſhip of Portugal became not only expedient but neceſſary. Upon this occaſion, Lewis XIV. was as obliging and civil as he had formerly ſhewn himſelf haughty and proud; and though don Pedro had already reſolved on the part he was to take, yet conſidering how ſoon, and how eaſily he might be cruſhed by the forces of the two crowns, he entered into an alliance with king Philip, and this for various reaſons. In the firſt place, it gained time, and delivered him from preſent danger; in the next it gave an opportunity of gaining good terms, which might be of uſe to him on another occaſion; and, laſtly, he obtained by it ſome preſent advantages, which were very beneficial to his ſubjects. But as ſoon as the general confederacy was formed againſt France, and it clearly appeared that the allies meant to ſet up another king of Spain, the Portugueſe monarch demanded of the French king, purſuant to a late alliance, a fleet of thirty ſail of the line, and a large ſum of money. He knew well enough, that as things then ſtood, thoſe demands could not be complied with; but he wanted a pretence for breaking that treaty, without breaking faith, and this did his buſineſs very effectually; for as ſoon as the fleet of the allies appeared upon his coaſt, he thought fit to declare himſelf neuter, and not long after made a treaty with Charles III. but before any ſteps could be taken for proſecuting the war, he was removed by death, December 9th, 1706, when he had lived fifty-eight, and from the death of his brother, had reigned twenty-three years.

John V. ſucceeded his father, and purſued his ſteps very exactly, notwithſtanding the Spaniards ſurpriſed the town of Alcantara, and made the garriſon priſoners of war, almoſt before he was ſettled in the throne. The aſſiſtance he gave the allies brought the Spaniſh monarchy twice to the brink of ruin; and though moſt of our accounts ſay, that the Portugueſe ſoldiers behaved but indifferently in that war, yet this ought not to be underſtood as a national reflection, farther than as long peace, great wealth, and much luxury, are capable of corrupting any people. While the war continued, the commerce of the Braſils

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Brasils began to grow much more considerable than in former times, by the working of the gold mines; and, as there was at that time a great intercourse between the two nations, the British traders obtained a large share of that gold for the commodities and manufactures with which they furnished the Portuguese. King John could not help seeing this with concern; he thought it hard they should have but a sight of the vast wealth derived from their own settlements, and that it should immediately vanish, as it were, out of Portugal into another country. His ministers were exactly of their master's opinion, and many consultations were held about finding a speedy and effectual remedy for what they considered as the greatest grievance. At length it was concluded, that the only method that could be taken was to prohibit the wear of foreign manufactures; and this had certainly been put in execution, if lord Galway, the commander of our forces in that country, though a Frenchman by birth, had not prevented it. He was a great favourite with his Portuguese majesty, and esteemed to be, as he certainly was, a very honest man. To him, therefore, as to a friend, and under the strictest injunction of secrecy, the king communicated this affair, and asked his advice about it. His lordship told him fairly, that the remedy would be worse than the disease; that the same Providence which had given his subjects gold, had bestowed commodities and manufactures upon the English; that the exchange therefore was not so injurious as he imagined; and that, by prohibiting commerce, he might force those that were now his best friends, to become his enemies, and to employ their naval power, which he knew to be so much superior to his own, in taking that by force for which they now gave a proper equivalent. He farther represented that, whatever turn the war might take, Portugal must always stand in need of the friendship of England, to prevent becoming dependent on the house of Austria or the house of Bourbon; and therefore it was much better that his subjects should trade with those from whom he had so much to hope, than with other nations from whom he had all things to fear. The king, who was both a reasonable and a just prince, and who in this business acted solely from a laudable affection for his subjects, comprehended the force of these arguments, and immediately laid aside a project, which, how plausible soever in its first appearance, was certainly at the bottom neither equitable nor practicable. Happy for the world if all kings meant

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as well, deliberated as coolly, and were as ready to receive and follow good advice.

The two crowns of Spain and Portugal were not reconciled thoroughly till the year 1737; and from this period they became every day more united, which gave much satisfaction to some courts, and no umbrage to any. In this situation of things, a treaty was made in 1750, with the court of Madrid, by which Nova Colonia, on the river of Plata, was yielded to his Catholic majesty, to the great regret of the Portuguese, as well on account of the value of that settlement, as because they apprehended their possession of the Brasils would by this action be rendered precarious. On the last of July the same year, this monarch, worn out by infirmities, deceased, in the sixty-first year of his age, and in the forty-fourth of his reign.

Don Joseph, prince of Brasil, succeeded him, to the universal satisfaction of his subjects, and with as great expectations as ever any monarch that mounted the throne. It was generally believed that he would make considerable alterations, in which he did not disappoint the hopes of the public; and yet they were done so slowly, with such moderation, and with so many circumstances of prudence, as hindered all grounds of complaint. Amongst other new regulations, the power of the inquisition suffered some restriction; the king directing, that none of their sentences should be put in execution till reviewed and approved by his privy-council. But as in the reign of his father he had consented to the treaty with Spain, he ratified it after his accession, and since carried it into execution upon this noble principle, that no considerations of interest ought ever to induce a monarch to break his word.

However, within the space of the few years of this king's reign, the calamities of Portugal in general, and those of the city of Lisbon in particular, cannot, in a great degree, be paralleled in all history. An earthquake, a fire, a famine, an assassination-plot against their prince, executions upon executions, the scaffolds and wheels for torture reeking with the noblest blood; imprisonment after imprisonment of the greatest and most distinguished personages; the expulsion of a chief order of ecclesiastics, the invasion of their kingdom by a powerful, stronger, and exasperated nation; the numerous troops of the enemy laying waste their territory, bringing fire and sword with them, and rolling, like distant thunder, towards the

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the gates of their capital; their prince ready almoſt to ſave himſelf by flight! The Spaniſh miniſtry had already decreed the doom of Portugal, and nothing was to be heard at the Eſcurial, but Delenda eſt Carthago. Carthaginian, perhaps, or Jewiſh ſtory, may poſſibly afford a ſcene ſomething like this, but, for the ſhortneſs of the period, not ſo big with events, though in their final deſtruction, ſuperior. From that, indeed, under the hand of Providence, the national humanity and generoſity of Great Britain has preſerved the Portugueſe; and it remains now to be ſeen, in future treaties, how that people will expreſs their gratitude. Thoſe who are able to ſearch deeper into human affairs, may aſſign the cauſes of ſuch a wonderful chain of events; but no wiſe man will aſcribe all this to ſo ſingular a cauſe as that which a Spaniard has done, in a famous pamphlet, printed in the year 1762, at Madrid. It is entitled a Spaniſh Prophecy, and endeavours to ſhew, that all theſe calamities have befallen the Portugueſe, ſolely on account of their connection with the heretic Engliſh. The great Ruler and Governor of the world undoubtedly acts by univerſal laws, regarding the whole ſyſtem, and cannot, without blaſphemy, be conſidered in the light of a partizan. The reſt of the pamphlet tends to ſhew, that his Catholic majeſty carried his arms into Portugal, ſolely to give them liberty, and ſet them free from Engliſh tyranny.

Joſeph dying, without male iſſue, the ſucceſſion devolved to Mary, his daughter, now Queen of Portugal. She was married ſome time before he died, with the pope's diſpenſation, to his brother don Pedro.

Intereſts, political and commercial of Portugal.

As for the intereſts of Portugal, they may be divided into political, with regard to their poſſeſſions in Europe; and commercial, with reſpect to their dominions in Aſia, Africa, and America. As to the firſt, there is no doubt that it conſiſts in maintaining peace; a point, to which his late majeſty remained always well inclined, and thereby preſerved quiet to his ſubjects in the midſt of all the broils of Europe. But, as the family-compact of the houſe of Bourbon, towards the cloſe of the late war, threatened the deſtruction of Portugal, and may hereafter do the ſame, that kingdom is under a neceſſity of living upon good terms with the maritime powers, and more eſpecially with Great Britain. It is, indeed, ſaying no more than truth, that there is ſcarce any inſtance in hiſtory of a more laſting and ſincere friendſhip than has ſubſiſted, for near a century paſt, between the two crowns;

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crowns; and, indeed, it is their mutual intereſt that it ſhould ſubſiſt; ſo that while it continues, and while Great Britain maintains her ſuperiority at ſea, Portugal can hardly ever be in danger. The ſafety, independency, and proſperity of Portugal, muſt depend either upon her maintaining a ſtrict conjunction with her natural allies, or upon her acquiring a ſtrength ſufficient to maintain herſelf, without having recourſe to any foreign aſſiſtance; but, as the latter is a thing very difficult to do, ſo beyond all queſtion, till it can be brought about, it will never be good policy in this crown to run any hazard as to the former. Till Portugal, therefore, acquires a naval force ſuperior to that of her neighbours, ſhe muſt, in ſome meaſure, depend upon that of Great Britain, and conſequently, it is directly contrary to her true intereſt to take any ſtep whatever that may be either prejudicial to that force upon which her own ſafety depends, or which may weaken thoſe ties experience has ſhewn to have been hitherto ſtrong enough, upon any emergency, to entitle her to that aſſiſtance.

As to the commercial intereſt of the Portugueſe, it lies now chiefly in the Weſt, as it did formerly in the Eaſt Indies; and, in reſpect to Brazil, their ſtrength is ſo great, that they have no reaſon to apprehend any thing from their neighbours: the only danger to which they are expoſed is from an inſurrection of their own Negroes, which might, indeed, have very bad conſequences. In the preſent ſtate of things, this colony is the moſt profitable in the world, ſince, conſidering the proportion between the two kingdoms, Portugal draws more profit from her Braſils than Spain from both Mexico and Peru. It is otherwiſe in regard of Aſia, where, from an empire of almoſt incredible extent, the Portugueſe dominion is in a manner ſhrunk within the narrow bounds of the little peninſula, at the point of which ſtands the city of Goa. Their traffic on the ſouth coaſt of Africa is ſtill very conſiderable.

In the whole, it may be ſaid, that whatever affects the commerce between Great Britain and Portugal, operates to the diſadvantage of both, as well by leſſening naval force, which depends upon trade, as by weakening the connections that unite the two nations, of equal conſequence to both. We ought to ſupport Portugal, becauſe it is our intereſt to preſerve her independent. But ſtill it is not our intereſt to do it more than other European na-

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tions; for they are all as much intereſted as we are in the preſervation of the balance of power in the South as well as in the North; and they have, beſides, all advantages in common with us in the commerce of that country. Hamburgh enjoys almoſt as great a trade with Portugal as England does: Holland a very great one; and ſo do Sweden and Denmark; and yet all of them ſat as indifferent ſpectators during the laſt ſcene of the troubles of Portugal. Hence may be ſeen the inſignificancy of the plea urged by intereſted people with regard to Portugal that was before urged with regard to Hanover; which is, that it was an invaſion in conſequence of her connections with us. But the caſes are not parallel, nor are the pleas in either ſufficient; for France did not enter Germany in the late war as the foe of Hanover, having not declared war againſt that ſtate; nor had Spain any right to force Portugal from her deſired neutrality. It is well known, that the preſent catholic king conſiders himſelf as lineal heir, in right of his mother, to the crown of Portugal; and it was long ago foreſeen, and foretold, that he would ſeize the firſt favourable opportunity that offered for aſſerting that claim. This opportunity offered from the then embroiled ſtate of Europe, the diſtreſſed condition of France, which conſtrained her for her own ſafety, to be an aſſiſtant in a project that ſhe otherwiſe would have oppoſed with all her might; our own too much exhauſted condition; the mercenary diſpoſition of the Dutch, which influences their inattention to every thing but the ſecurity of preſent gain; and, above all, the weakneſs of Portugal, from her preceding great calamity. Theſe were the motives that induced Spain to attack Portugal. It was no war with her upon our account. Spain rather forced a war with us, in order to form a pretence for attacking and ſeizing Portugal.

Government and laws of Portugal; and genius, &c. of the inhabitants.

The king of Portugal may be now conſidered, as well as the king of Spain, as an abſolute prince. The cortes have long ſince ſold their part in the legiſlature to the crown, and only ſerve to confirm or record ſuch acts of ſtate as the court reſolves upon; to declare the next heir to the crown when the king is pleaſed to nominate him, or to ratify treaties with foreign princes, who may ſtill deem their conſent of any weight. The laws of Portugal are all contained in three ſmall volumes; and are founded on the civil law, and their particular cuſtoms. As to the genius, cuſtoms, manners, &c. of the Portugueſe,

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guese, they resemble those of Spain, of which they were a province. Their religion is the same, and there are a proportionable number of convents. A patriarchate has lately been erected at Lisbon, which is the only difference between the ecclesiastical government of Spain and Portugal.

SECT. IV.

Of France.

THE kingdom of France is most advantageously situated in the middle of the temperate zone, and extends from the 42d degree and half of latitude to the 51st; containing in breadth, according to the observations and calculations of some of the members of their Royal Academy of Sciences, about 13 degrees of longitude; namely, from the extremity of Britanny, near the island of Ushant, that is, from Conquet, which lies 5 degrees west of London, to Strasburg in Alsace, which is about 8 degrees east of London. France therefore contains in length, from the Pyrenean mountains in the south to Dunkirk in the north, 8 degrees and a half, that is, 170 leagues, or 510 miles, reckoning twenty leagues, or 60 miles to a degree of longitude; and in breadth, from the uttermost point in Britanny to Strasburg in Alsace, about 165 leagues, or 495 miles; but its breadth decreases considerably, going from Brest to the south, and to the north. On the north, it is separated from England by the British channel; on the north-east it is contiguous to the Netherlands; on the east it borders on Germany, Switzerland, Savoy, and Piedmont, from the last of which it is separated by the Alps; on the south it is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, and by the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain; and on the west it is surrounded by the ocean. *Situation, extent, and boundaries of France.*

The air is very temperate and wholsome, and not subject to the great cold of Germany, Sweden, and Muscovy, nor to the excessive heats of Spain and Italy; but it is more or less hot or cold, according to the different situation of the several provinces. In the southern parts, as in Dauphiné, Provence, and Languedoc, the winters are generally very sharp, but do not continue long; and the seasons in France are much more regular than they are in England. There is no country in Europe, says la Martiniere, more beautiful, nor more pleasant to live in *Air, fertility, and produce.*

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than France. There you may behold high mountains, the Pyrenees, the Alps, the mountains of the Sevennes, of Auvergne, and some others, together with several fine rivers which run through it, and render it very fruitful. It abounds with corn, fruit, wine, oil, herds of cattle, tame, and wild fowl, hemp, and flax; the sea-coast furnishes the inhabitants with abundance of fish, and with a quantity of salt sufficient for them and their neighbours. There are also mines of lead, iron, and copper; and some gold and silver; but these are not suffered to be worked, because the profit would not answer the expence. The salt is chiefly made in the isle of Rhée, about Rochfort, and on the coast of Saintonge.

How divided. The kingdom of France was generally divided by geographers into twelve governments; but, as the number is much larger, we shall follow, for greater accuracy, father Buffier's account, who reckons thirty distinct governments, each of which has a particular governor independent of all other persons but the king. Of these thirty governments, there are eighteen in the circuit of the kingdom, and twelve in the middle. Those in the circuit may be divided into four parts, according to the four cardinal points of east, south, west, and north.

On the east, are five governments, namely, 1. Alsace; 2 Franche Compté; 3. Burgundy; 4. Lyonnois; and 5. Dauphiné.

On the south, are also five governments, as, 1. Provence; 2. Languedoc; 3. Roussillon; 4. the county, or earldom of Foix; and 5. Bearn.

On the west, are the same number of governments, which are, 1. Guienne; 2. Saintonge, annexed to Angoumois; 3. the county of Aunis; 4. Poitou; and 5. Brittany.

On the north there are but three governments, but equal at least, in extent, to five of the others; these are, 1. Normandy; 2. Picardy; and 3. French Flanders.

The twelve governments in the middle of France may be considered as placed on the three sides of a triangle, the point of which is towards the south, on the borders of Auvergne and Limousin; and thus we find four governments on each side of the triangle, viz.

On the east, 1. Champagne; 2. Nivernois; 3. Bourbonnois; and 4. Auvergne.

On the west, reckoning from Auvergne, 1. Limousin; 2. la Marche; 3. Berry; and 4. Touraine.

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Towards the north, 1. Anjou; 2. Maine; 3. Orleannois; and 4. the Isle of France.

It would lead us beyond the bounds we have prescribed ourselves, to describe the particular provinces, counties, districts, or cities, contained in each of these governments; so that we shall content ourselves in regard to France, which is an extensive country, with taking a cursory view of its principal sea-port towns, and some other places of note, first giving a general idea of its particular subjects and articles of trade and commerce.

Productions and manufactures of France, as subjects of trade.

The productions of France, as subjects of trade, are, 1. Wines of Champaigne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Nantes, and other places on the Loire. 2. The produce of the wines, as brandy of Bourdeaux, Nantes and Rochelle Vinegar, and lees of wines. 3. Fruit, such as prunes and prunelloes, dried grapes, pears, and apples, in Normandy; oranges and olives in Languedoc and Provence. 4. Corn, salt, hemp, flax, silk, rosin, oil, cork. 5. Kid skins in abundance, perfumes, extracted oils, drugs, and chemical preparations. 6. They have also minerals and metals of divers kinds, and are daily discovering others; and they are become great artists in the smelting and refining them, and perform these operations to as great perfection as any other country.

The manufactures of France are, 1. Silks, as lustrings, alamodes, sarsenets, broad, flowered, and brocaded silks, velvets. 2. Woollen manufactures, in imitation of those of England, which are chiefly carried on in Normandy, Poictou, Languedoc, Provence, Guienne, and some other parts. 3. Linen, such as Normandy canvas, sail-cloth, at Vitry, and other places; doulasses at Morlaix, and fine linens and lace in the inland provinces. 4. Paper of all sorts. 5. Tapestry, which they make very rich and fine in Picardy, and near Paris. 6. Soap, which they chiefly make in Provence, and which is so considerable an article, that when their crop of oil fails, they fetch a prodigious quantity from the Levant to supply the soap-makers. The French have, for some years past, obtained the secret from Spain of making Castile soap, as it is called, and have set up very large manufactures thereof both at Marseilles and Toulon, and have thereby beat the Spaniards out of that valuable branch of trade. Nor is this the only benefit which France receives by this manufacture; for, as one of the chief ingredients of making this soap, is Levantine olive-oil, together with the ingredients of sofa and barilla, their large vent for their soap gives them

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them the advantage of conſtant back-freights from the Levant, with theſe oils; which, it ſeems, has proved one great, if not the only means of the French advancing their Turkey trade upon the ruin of our's: for, we having no ſuch manufacture of Caſtile ſoap, that will conſume ſuch quantities of Levant oil as the French, we can neither trade with the Turks ſo much to their advantage as the French do, nor ſo much to our own, as if our Turkey traders had the like benefit by conſtant back-freights.

Inland trade of France.

As France is certainly the moſt populous and extenſive kingdom in Europe, ſo its inland traffic is proportionate, and, in many particulars, far beyond any country in Europe; being carried on with great eaſe and little expence, by means of many large navigable rivers. Five rivers empty themſelves into the Seine, and this ſo near to Paris, that goods are brought thither from ſome of the remoteſt parts by theſe rivers. Theſe are the Mairne, Aiſne, Logn, Oyſe, Yonne; beſides the canals of Orleans and Briere, and by them from the Loire; alſo up the Seine, by Rouen, from the ſea: ſo that, by theſe rivers, the traders of Paris can receive heavy goods from moſt of the northern parts of France, alſo from Lorrain, Burgundy, Picardy, Normandy, and Britany, at very eaſy rates. The Loire, without compariſon the largeſt river in France, and the ſartheſt navigable, and on which ſtand the largeſt and moſt capital cities of the kingdom, Paris excepted, conveys their wines down from all the wine-making provinces to Nantes, and, in return, furniſhes thoſe countries with all neceſſary goods for the merchants and traders of thoſe parts. The Rhone, an inland river of a long courſe, takes in the Soane and the Doux from Burgundy, and the Durance from Dauphiné, and ſupplies all the province of Languedoc, as well as Burgundy, and the Swiſs cantons, with merchandize from all parts of the world. The Garonne does the ſame in Guienne, Gaſcoigne, Poictou, and French Navarre. But the home trade of France, which well deſerves our regard, is their coaſting trade by ſea, in order to bring the product of the ſouth parts of France to thoſe of the north, for the ſupply of the great city of Paris, and of all the northern provinces; and this, indeed, is a very conſiderable, as well as material part of their trade; and, next to the coal trade of England, is, perhaps, the greateſt article of its kind in Europe, and employs more ſhips and more people. The principal ports for this commerce are the cities of Bourdeaux and Rouen; but many other places ſhare in

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in the trade by the way, both in the out-loading, and in the returns. The firſt ſhips are loaded at Bourdeaux with wines and fruits of all ſorts, and all other products of the ſouthern provinces; and there ſetting out in a fleet, and under convoy, in time of war, ſtop at St. Martin's, and the Iſle of Rhée. Here they are joined by the ſhips from Rochelle, laden alſo with wines and fruits of all kinds, as well as with corn, which the adjacent country ſupplies. Hence they proceed to the coaſt of Britany, and anchoring at Belleiſle, are joined by another fleet from Nantes, Sherrant, and St. Malo, laden with white wines, brandy, and corn; though generally the ſhips from Nantes, &c. take care to be ready for the convoy, and to be at Belleiſle before them. The fleet thus gathered, and ſometimes even during a war, make up from a hundred and fifty to two hundred ſail, and they proceed to the mouth of the Seine. The ſhips deſigned for the trade of Paris put in at Havre, and, taking the opportunity of winds and tides, make the beſt of their way up to Rouen, while the reſt ſeparate for their reſpective ports, as Caen, Dieppe, St. Valery, Bologne, Calais, Dunkirk, &c. theſe are the chief ports where they unload. The groſs of their loading is delivered in this manner; and from theſe places the wines are diſperſed over all the northern provinces of France and the Netherlands; for Dunkirk being a free port, all the merchandizes deſtined for Flanders, on board theſe coaſting veſſels, are diſperſed from Dunkirk by the canals and rivers with which that country abounds. Nor is this coaſting-trade only thus conſiderable in one fleet, but it is paſſing and repaſſing all the year, eſpecially in the autumn after the vintage.

It would be endleſs to enumerate the cities and towns which ſupply Paris, with their manufactures; but though the commerce of this royal city is mighty conſiderable, yet being no ſea-port, it is not the centre of the trade of the whole country, as is the caſe of London, Amſterdam, and ſome others of the principal cities in Europe; nor is it poſſible to be ſo, the extent of the country being ſo exceeding great. However, Paris being the moſt populous city in France, there being, as computed, near a million of people, and near half as many more in the adjacent towns, for ten or twelve miles round it; this great confluence of people muſt neceſſarily cauſe a proportionable accumulation of proviſion and merchandizes, brought as well by the Seine, as by other rivers, from the remoteſt countries

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in France. And though there is no trade of malt in France, which makes ſo great an article in the corn trade of England, the French, drinking little malt liquor throughout the kingdom; yet, as the French uſually eat more than double, if not treble the quantity of bread, in their ordinary way of diet than the Engliſh do, ſo the quantity of wheat and barley may riſe ſomething in proportion, and, perhaps, near equal to that of both wheat and malt in England, conſidering the number of people in both countries. The quantity of corn produced therefore in France, in a plentiful year, muſt be extremely great; and then they ſupply Germany, Switzerland, Geneva, and ſeveral other parts with corn: yet, if either an extraordinary hot or wet ſummer happens, their crop is injured, and a ſcarcity enſues; and they are leſs able to ſupport the want of corn than other countries, and are much more oppreſſed on ſuch occaſions than the Engliſh would be, who, having ſo plentiful a ſupply of fleſh, roots, and malt liquor, are able to live with the leaſt bread of any nation in Europe. In theſe times of ſcarcity in France, the greateſt quantity of corn brought to Paris comes up the Seine, being imported at Rouen, and other ports not far from that river, from England or Holland; or elſe at Nantes, and brought up the Loire by the canals before mentioned.

There is another centre of inland commerce in France, which has not an immediate communication with Paris by water, except by a very long circuit, and that is in the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt parts of France, and the centre of this trade may be placed at Lyons; for Lyons is ſeated, in ſome reſpects, in regard to commerce, like Paris; it is nearly at the ſame diſtance from the ſea, and upon as great, or rather a greater river, though not ſo happily navigable as that part next the ſea, by reaſon of the violence of the current, and the weakneſs of the tides. As the navigation, however, reſpects inland commerce chiefly, it is happily ſupplied by the canal of Martigues, ſo that there is no want of larger ſhipping; and, for goods of foreign importation, they are conveyed by the ports of Marſeilles in Provence, and that of Cette in Languedoc, ſufficient for that part of the trade. The confluence of the Soane and the Rhoſne, which meet at Lyons, gives an advantage of inland navigation to that city, from a very great extent of the country round. The firſt receiving the river Doux from Burgundy, and even from the frontiers,

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tiers of Alsace, commands all the trade of that part of France, till they come so near the Loire and the Seine, that a small voiture by land makes a communication that way; and the manufactures of this part of France are conveyed, by either of these rivers, into the north parts of France, and to Paris itself. Nor on the west side is it above eight leagues, till meeting with the waters of the Lot, a navigable stream in the Gevaudan, which runs into the Garonne, their goods are likewise conveyed to Bourdeaux by water, and from thence by sea, not only to Paris but to England; also to Holland, and most other parts of the world. Next to the Soane and the Doux, which particularly maintain a trade with that part of Burgundy called the Franche Compté, the navigation of the Rhosne itself brings to Lyons all the commerce of the city and lake of Geneva, and all the adjacent cantons of the Swiss; from whence there is a great and constant return of trade, especially from the city of Geneva, which particularly manages the rest of the trade from all the Swiss cantons, and brings to Lyons abundance of manufactures, as well from Switzerland as from the Rhine, by the navigation of the Aar and other rivers; whereby Geneva has a communication with the Upper Alsace, Suabia, and other parts of Germany. Also, by the Durance, a large river, and, though very rapid, yet made useful for part of its channel, the trade is supplied into Dauphiné and Provence, even to the mountains of Pignerol, and thence to the Po, and by that river into Piedmont and Italy. It may be here observed, in regard to Lyons, that the distance from the rivers Soane and Rhosne to the Loire, the Seine and the Garonne, by which the communication is maintained with Bourdeaux, Nantes, Paris, and other parts of the kingdom of France, make the trade of that city not so difficult as it would otherwise be; and so again, for Lyons receiving the Turkey raw silk, and Italian thrown silk, &c. is likewise easy from Marseilles to Avignon, where it is embarked on the Rhosne, or from Marseilles to Martigues. This commodiousness for inland commerce is exceeding beneficial to Lyons, and renders it a city of very great consequence to the kingdom; for, as Paris is to the north of France, so is Lyons to all the southern provinces, as Dauphiné, Provence, all the Upper Languedoc, Burgundy, or the Franche Compté, Neufchatel, and also Geneva, Savoy, and the Swiss Cantons. By the same inland navigation, the city of Lyons drives a very considerable trade in the woollen manufactures made

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made in Languedoc, about Niſmes, Beaucaire, and other places; and which are brought up the Rhoſne at the proper ſeaſons, and ſold at the fair at Lyons. In like manner, the wines of Burgundy, and of Champaigne alſo, are brought down the Soane and the Doux to Lyons, and ſent from thence to all the principal cities of Languedoc and Guienne.

Foreign trade of France. We ſhall now conſider how the kingdom of France is ſituated in regard to its coaſts for foreign trade; and how extenſively ſhe carries the ſame on in Europe, Aſia, Africa, and America. The French coaſt in the Mediterranean ſea begins oppoſite to Perpignan, which is the firſt city on that ſide, under the French government; and the firſt port in France, on this ſide, though of no conſequence, is port Vendre. Perpignan is a frontier of Rouſſillon by land, and of importance, in caſe of a war againſt Spain; on which account the French have made it very ſtrong. The ſea, on the coaſt of Rouſſillon, and onward to Montpelier, is called the gulf of Narbonne.

Narbonne. The city of Narbonne is particularly famous for the finiſhing that great work of a navigation between the two ſeas, that is, the joining the Cantabrian and the Mediterranean ſea together, by a canal. This work was ſet on foot by Lewis XIV. a prince born for great undertakings. It was fifteen years in completing, from 1666 to 1681, and coſt an immenſe ſum. All difficulties were ſurmounted; vallies were filled up, mountains and hills levelled, and the boats continue to paſs and repaſs with great eaſe, for the benefit of commerce. Between the river Aude, and the mouth of the Rhoſne, there lies, parallel with the ſea, a lake thirty miles long, and from three to five broad, extending from the river Eraut, and the city of Agde weſt, almoſt to the mouth of the Rhoſne eaſt. Agde is a ſmall city on the river Eraut. The port is ſmall; yet they have ſome ſhips, and they export wine and oil; and, within theſe thirty years, their trade has increaſed. In the middle of this lake there is an opening into the ſea, which makes a very good port called Cette. Here ſhips of burden may come in; and, the royal canal being carried on from Narbonne to Agde, the merchandize, which is brought from Italy to be ſent by the canal to Bourdeaux, is generally landed at Cette; and thence carried, by the lake, to Agde, and put on board barges for the canal.

Marſeilles. Between Cette and Marſeilles, the great river Rhoſne empties itſelf into the ſea. The fame of the city of Marſeilles

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ſeilles for commerce is well known all over the world. It is, indeed, the only trading city and port of note in the ſouth of France. It lies about fifty leagues eaſt of Narbonne. The harbour is ſpacious and good, and receives the largeſt ſhips, though ſometimes the biggeſt are obliged to lighten their loading a little before they come in. The city is fine, large, populous, and rich, and is rendered ſo particularly by its commerce; the whole Italian and Turkey trade of France being carried on here. Lewis XIV. as he well knew the importance of this city, ſo he took it into his particular favour, and gave ſuch directions for beautifying it, and for encouraging men of trade and buſineſs to reſort to it, that Marſeilles became quite a new city to what it had been. The key is ſaid to be one of the fineſt in the world, except that of Seville in Spain. The fortifications are ſo prodigiouſly ſtrong, that no others ſcarce equal them: by ſea, nothing can hurt the city, and by land, it would require one hundred thouſand men to attack it in form. But, after it was viſited with a plague in 1723, this city ſuffered a great eclipſe, and its commerce decayed for near a twelve-month unſpeakably, not a ſhip being ſuffered to paſs or repaſs, nor would any nation admit them to come into their ports; ſo that the poor were left to ſtarve, and the ſailors periſhed miſerably at ſea; but it has ſince ſurpriſingly recovered itſelf, and now daily advances in commerce. The French trade to Turkey and Egypt, as alſo to the coaſt of Africa, and to all the iſlands of the Arches, centers at Marſeilles. They have alſo a conſiderable trade to Venice, Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, and Sicily; and they have conſuls at almoſt all the iſlands and ports in the Mediterranean, Marſeilles being the only city of France for trading in thoſe ſeas; but above all for the Turkey trade in general, wherein, at preſent, they exceed all other nations, and have ſurpriſingly ſupplanted the Engliſh.

Toulon, a port-town of Provence, is ſituate on a bay of the Mediterranean ſea, twenty-five miles ſouth-eaſt of Marſeilles. It has the moſt ſecure and capacious harbour of any port in France. Here the largeſt ſhips of the royal navy of France are built and ſtationed, and here vaſt magazines of all manner of naval ſtores and timber for ſhipping are repoſited. Here likewiſe are the fineſt docks and yards, for the fitting out and furniſhing ſhips of war, in the whole world perhaps. In Toulon, there are academies for the marine guards, where they are taught navigation; and there is a royal foundery for cannon and mortars, and *Toulon.*

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all manner of utenſils for cannoneers and bombardeers. They had in the harbour of Toulon, when the confederates laid ſiege to it in 1707, ſixteen firſt rate men of war, eight ſecond rates, twenty-four third rates, and ſix fourth rates; all which the Engliſh had very probably taken, if the Germans had not detached fifteen thouſand men to Naples, which were intended to conſtitute part of the army to form that ſiege. From hence to the coaſt of Nice, and the frontiers of the dominions of the duke of Savoy, France affords nothing conſiderable.

Iſles of Hieres. The iſles of Hieres lie off the coaſt, under the weſt part of which there is a good road for the largeſt ſhips; and where the Engliſh fleet lay many months in 1744, and blocked up the French and Spaniſh fleets in the harbour of Toulon; and, on their quitting that harbour, the combined fleets were engaged by admiral Matthews, before whom they fled to the coaſt of Spain, and would have been deſtroyed, if he had not been deſerted by one of the Engliſh admirals, and ſeveral of his captains: but, on the ſhore, no towns of note, or ports of trade, are found, till we come to the cape of Antibes, on the eaſt ſide of which lies the city of Antibes, the laſt in France. It lies at the bottom of a ſmall gulf; but the harbour is not very good, nor is the trade conſiderable.

On the coaſt of France, from Dunkirk to St. Malo's, and from thence to St. Sebaſtian, are,

Dunkirk. Dunkirk, once a very formidable place for ſtrength, and terrible to all Europe; but its fortifications were deſtroyed by the treaty of Utrecht, and being ſince in a great meaſure re-inſtated, were again to undergo the ſame fate by the treaty of Paris, in 1763. Nothing ſupports this town at preſent, but its being a free port, and the neighbourhood of the city of Liſle; which, being a rich and great city, and, for its wealth and number of people, called Little Paris, has no other port but that of Dunkirk to carry on its trade at.

Calais. Calais is the eaſternmoſt town of the ancient kingdom of France, and was once a very conſiderable place, being long contended for between the crowns of England and France; but the port, not being capable of receiving ſhips of burden, has very little trade, unleſs in the ſmuggling way by ſmall craft.

Boulogne. Boulogne is a large town, and ſtands on the ſea-ſhore; but as the river is ſmall, is no port of any conſequence. It lies in a large bay bearing its own name. The channel is here thirty miles over, reckoning from about Romney, in Kent

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Kent to the bottom of the bay of Boulogne. There are some merchants here, and it is particularly eminent for the manufacturing trade, but highly injurious to Great Britain for one article of it, the bringing of English wool over from Romney Marsh, in Kent; a trade which the French find so much their account in, that they have long experienced it to be their interest to give great encouragement to the English smugglers; and all the vigilance of the government, which has been remarkably severe upon this occasion, has not been able to put an effectual stop to it, though it is certainly of late very greatly checked. As Romney Marsh is the place where it is ordinarily shipped off, so the town of Boulogne, and the coast all along the bay, from Boulogne to the mouth of the Soane, the principal river of Picardy, is the usual place where it is brought on shore. Nor have the French the advantage of the English wool only, but it is observable, that they have constantly many English workmen among them, especially such as we call in England master-manufacturers; and these being brought over from England by the influence of extraordinary rewards and encouragements, and having the English wool to work on, have brought the French to a proficiency in the woollen manufactory, that may in time prove the ruin of the like trade of this kingdom.

Dieppe is a fine town, and the best for trade next to Dunkirk on this part of the French coast. Before the late war, they had in particular a considerable trade to Newfoundland, and to the French settlements in North America. Their ships often unlade at Havre, in the Seine, for the convenience of sending their cargoes up the river to Rouen and Paris. However, when they are unladen they come with more ease into the haven of Dieppe to lay up, where they have water enough when they are in, and are laid safe. The seamen of Dieppe are accounted the best sailors in France. *Dieppe.*

Rouen, being the sea-port to Paris, becomes of course a great, rich, and flourishing city. Its trade is extraordinary, and consists of divers branches, in respect both to its foreign as well as home parts, especially in the linen and woollen manufactures, and in the latter more eminently. It has a great trade with Ireland, particularly for leather, butter, tallow, and other products of that country. Its coasting trade has been already mentioned. *Rouen.*

Havre de Grace stands at the mouth of the Seine, and is said to be the port to the city of Rouen, as Rouen is to the *Havre de Grace.*

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the city of Paris, the merchants here laying up their ships, which are too large to go up so far in the river. It has the most considerable share in the fishing trade of any port in France, principally to Newfoundland, the North Seas, and for the herring-fishery, not only in the Channel, but on the back of the sands off Yarmouth; and since the French king laid high duties on the Yarmouth fish, they have wonderfully improved in curing them in the Yarmouth way, to our no little detriment.

Caen. Caen is the first port beyond the mouth of the Seine west. It is a small port, but a pretty large city, and, having a communication with the English Channel, does not want commerce, though not to the advantage of England. The navigation of this coast, as far as the island of Alderney, is safe and easy; afterwards there is need of good pilots.

St. Malo. St. Malo is a city of commerce, and inferior to none that France has in the ocean. The road for shipping and the harbour, are safe and convenient, which, with the commodious situation, open to the British channel, make it a place of the best trade to France on this coast; the merchants here, particularly in the wars of queen Anne, were some of the richest in all France, being deeply embarked in the South Sea trade at that time. In our late wars with France, their privateers have proved a great grievance to us by frequent captures of our merchant ships. It was before the last war but one a flourishing place of trade, especially for the Newfoundland fishery, also to Martinico, to Quebec, and, indeed, to most of the French colonies in America. It is situate in the bottom of a large bay, extending from cape La Hogue to the Seven Isles, after which the land falls away to cape Ushant. Between these lies the town of

Morlaix. Morlaix, at the mouth of a river of the same name. It is large and beautiful, full of people and trade, the port good, the channel deep, and ships of above a hundred tons come up to the key. The best printing and writing paper in France is said to be made here. In fine, the increase of commerce has greatly increased the wealth, the splendor, the happiness, of the place, which are ever the invariable effects of it.

Brest. Brest is a place of consequence upon this coast, being the largest and most capacious road and harbour that France is possessed of on the ocean. It is also the best defended, and safest harbour in France. Here the French fleets are oftentimes laid up, though the greatest of their men

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men of war generally go to Toulon. Here are warehouſes and magazines to lay up naval ſtores for a hundred ſail of ſhips of war of the line, and ſome of eighty and ninety guns have been built here. France, in the year 1690, had a royal navy at Breſt, equal, if not ſuperior, to all the naval power of England and Holland united. It offered them battle, which they declined. The inlet of the ſea, which forms the harbour of Breſt, is very large, the waters every way deep, and the anchorage good.

Mouth of the Loire.

The next place of conſequence, on this coaſt, is the mouth of the river Loire. The towns of note on or near the Loire, below the canal of Orleans, and before it comes to Nantes, are Orleans, Blois, Amboiſe, Tours, Saumur, and Angers, all of them large trading cities. No country, except the Netherlands, can ſhew ſeven ſuch cities, on the banks of one river, under one ſovereign, and in ſo ſmall a compaſs of territory.

Rochelle.

Rochelle, on this coaſt of the ocean, is a conſiderable port of trade, though unfortified, for reaſons too well known. This city was once the ſtrongeſt in the whole kingdom, and, on account of its opulence and ſplendor, for years the bulwark of the French Proteſtants. It ſupported their intereſt in the civil wars in France, during five kings reigns, and at length defended itſelf with almoſt incredible bravery and reſolution, againſt the whole power of France, the French king, Lewis XIII. beſieging it in perſon: nor would the Rochellers have been reduced at laſt, if we may credit hiſtory, had not the Dutch, though Proteſtants, and ſome Engliſh ſhips too, been hired by the French to maſter their fleet, and deprive them of aſſiſtance by ſea; whereas they were before maſters of the ſea, and all the naval power of France was not able to match them. But their fleet being beaten, and the promiſed ſuccours of the Engliſh failing, cardinal Richelieu contrived a ſea-wall to be made, and carried it on with invincible induſtry, to block up their harbour. Thus being deprived of all relief, they were obliged to ſubmit, by the extremity of famine, thirty thouſand people having periſhed here, in the year 1628, for want of bread. Though Rochelle, on this occaſion, loſt all its privileges, the Proteſtant religion being baniſhed the place, and its fortifications demoliſhed, it continued afterwards, and ſtill does, to be a place of conſiderable trade, full of wealthy merchants, whoſe commerce extends to moſt parts of the world, but eſpecially to the Weſt Indies, Martinico, St. Domingo, and Quebec, before the late war: from hence alſo was a very great part of

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of the Newfoundland trade carried on, and likewise that of their Miſſiſſippi. The French Eaſt India company too made uſe of Rochelle as a port, though not always, for the return of their ſhips from India, and for diſpoſing of their cargoes.

Port Lewis. Port Lewis is a harbour deſerving our notice, and, if it had ſtood on the north part of France, in Normandy, or Picardy, would have been worth a kingdom itſelf; but as it ſtands on the coaſt of Brittany, to the ſouth of cape Uſhant, where France has many good harbours and ſafe roads for ſhipping, as well for war as commerce, ſuch as the harbours of Breſt, Rochelle, Nantes, Bourdeaux, &c. and the roads of Conquet, Belleiſle, St. Martin, and others, this makes Port Lewis the leſs regarded. It is, however, populous and rich, and has many wealthy merchants, eſpecially ſuch who trade pretty largely to the Weſt Indies; and being a good harbour, is likewiſe a ſtation for part of the royal navy, and for the ſhips of the French Eaſt India company.

Nantes. Nantes ſtands thirty miles within the land, upon the north bank of the Loire, which is here a very ſpacious and noble river, has a deep and ſafe channel, and makes a fine harbour. It has a flouriſhing trade, both domeſtic and foreign, few towns in France outdoing it. The great exportation of wines and brandies from hence are the capital conſtant articles upon which Nantes chiefly depends. It is ſcarce credible to conceive how conſiderable the trade is, both of brandies and wines together; inſomuch that it is an uſual thing to ſee two or three hundred ſail of ſhips in the Loire at a time, taking in wines and brandies.

There is no port of any conſequence between Rochelle and the river Garonne, nor upon the Garonne, except

Bourdeaux. Bourdeaux, which is forty miles up that river. This is an exceeding large and populous city, and is ſo ſpread by vineyards, as to be accounted not leſs than twenty miles long. The tide flows quite up to the city of Bourdeaux, and brings ſhips of good burden to the very key. It ſtands on the ſouth of the river Garonne. The trade here is chiefly for wine, and that in ſuch prodigious quantities, that when our trade with France was open, it had been ordinary to ſee four or five hundred ſhips in the river at a time, loading wines for England only, and for other nations many more. Hence came the clarets and ſtrong wines of France, as thoſe of Pontac, Graves, Frontinac, Caveac, &c. being the names of the vineyards, or of the towns where the vineyards are, the wines taking their names

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names from the towns, or from the persons who own them. They have also a considerable traffic here to the West Indies, as particularly to the French sugar-colonies in America, and they have many sugar-bakers, which have brought them a great trade for refined sugars, both at home and abroad.

Bayonne is the last considerable town in the French dominions. It is an ancient, spacious, opulent, and populous city, has a great trade both in France and with Spain, and with many other parts in Europe. Its fine harbour in the mouth of the river Adour reaches into the very heart of the city, and is so deep and safe, that the largest ships come up to the very merchants doors; and the entrance into it is secured by a strong castle, regularly fortified, Bayonne being a frontier both by land and sea, for it is within fifteen miles of the frontiers of Spain. *Bayonne.*

Thus we have seen how France, by its situation, has the advantage for commerce of all the nations on this side the globe, Britain excepted. To the prodigious number of their people must be joined the temper and genius of the nation: they are vigorous, active, industrious, and even in trade, as well as war, an enterprising people. So greatly have they increased their trade since the treaty of Utrecht, that they now carry their wines and brandies into the Baltic, where formerly the Dutch sent them in Holland bottoms; and the French bring their naval stores from Livonia, Prussia, and Petersburg, in French ships, where, before that treaty, no French ships had scarce ever been seen. The Hanse Towns now have little or no share in furnishing France with iron and copper, with timber, pitch, or tar. The French also now trade with Sweden, as other nations do, and to Dantzic, and have greatly increased their commerce in Russia as well as their neighbours. With all these advantages of situation, extent of land, and numbers of people, France has laboured, from the beginning of its commerce, under two difficulties, which rendered it next to impossible to produce any considerable staple manufactures, unless these difficulties could be effectually surmounted. These were the want of a competency of wool, and of silk, the two fundamental articles in the general manufactures of Europe, and such too, which the French, from the activity and industry of their people, were well disposed to fall into; but wanting these fundamental natural productions in ample quantities, suffered the discouragement many years, with no little affliction; for they fell into the silk manu- *Rise and progress of the trade of France, and to what owing.*

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facture to a very great degree, encouraged by the Italians, when the French were maſters of the Milaneſe, in the reign of Francis I. and though they bought their ſilk in Italy and Turkey, as they ſtill do in ſome quantities; yet all the ſouthern parts of France, eſpecially the Upper Languedoc, the Lyonnois, and part of Dauphiné, were employed in the manufacture of ſilk, and greatly improved in it, ſpreading it into Champaigne, and even to Paris itſelf. This was from about the year 1520. But at length, the French conquered this difficulty. By the means of ſome Piedmonteſe, who became ſubjects to France after the ſeizure of Pignerol, in the reign of Lewis XIII. they firſt began to plant the white mulberries in Languedoc, and part of Provence; and, nouriſhing the ſilk-worms with unſpeakable induſtry, and being greatly encouraged by the court in the reign of Lewis XIV. they, after many years ſpent in the firſt experiments, at length brought the ſame to perfection, and produced the ſilk itſelf in good quantities, which is now become a natural produce of France, as it was before of Piedmont, and other parts of Italy, who originally borrowed it from the Aſiatics of Armenia and Georgia, as the French did from them, and as the Engliſh moſt certainly might from them both, and effectually eſtabliſh the ſame in the colonies on the continent of America. But it has not proved the ſame in France with regard to the produce of wool, which, as to quantity and quality, is far from being equal to that of England and Ireland in general. The French, a vigilant and improving people, being ſenſible how deficient they were in the article of wool, obtained ſheep from England and Ireland, as they had wool, in order to try the poſſibility of raiſing wool, by the means of our ſheep, as good in quality, and as large in quantity, in general, as our wool is; but hitherto they have been diſappointed, though, it is ſaid, there is at preſent in Normandy another grand attempt on foot to accompliſh this deſign. We are apt to flatter ourſelves with the impoſſibility hereof, yet we may one day find ourſelves miſtaken. The examples brought from our bull-dogs, hounds, and maſtiffs, all which are ſaid to alter their nature upon change of climate, ſuppoſing theſe things to be matter of fact, do not, perhaps, afford any thing concluſive with reſpect to the article of ſheep. We ſhall not, however, enter into the philoſophy of this matter; nor would it become Britons to be inſtrumental to let ſuch rivals into a ſecret of that kind, was it in their power. Certain it is, that France ſtill labours under

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under the want of this essential production, to the degree that we have it. They have wool, indeed, of their own growth, in great quantities, since the success of their woollen manufactories; and in some places, as with us, it is better than in others, as in the Upper Languedoc, Poictou, Guienne, and those provinces lying towards Burgundy; but the best has been said not to be qualified for near so estimable a manufacture as ours is in general, neither will it mix or work with the foreign wools so well, the staple being too short, and the wool itself weak, and not sufficiently strong to bear the several needful operations of combing, carding, spinning, and weaving, to that perfection which ours does; so that the manufactures, when made of the best of it, are thin, slight, and not of that substance, duration, and beauty, as those made of the English and Irish wool. Yet this disadvantage by nature has nor discouraged this nation from attempting the woollen manufacture in every branch; for, since they have not wool so good, in general, as ours, they have been long determined to have our English and Irish wool, which being properly mixed with their own, or properly worked by itself, they have had art enough to impose their woollen manufactures upon several other parts of Europe, even for English fabrication. This supplying France with English and Irish wool was first brought about by the indefatigable endeavours and profound policy of their great minister Colbert, to whom we owe that pernicious trade of owling, as it is called, or the running of wool from this kingdom into France. He first set the poor to work all over France, in combing, spinning, weaving, and dying of wool and woollen goods. And what was soon the consequence of this? the French king saw all his subjects clothed, however indifferently, with the manufactures of their own country, who, but a few years before, bought their cloaths from England, or, which was worse, at second hand from Flanders and the Dutch. This commercial minister also decoyed, by rewards and encouragements, English artists into every part of France, where it was found most proper to establish these manufactures; and there they taught the people so well all the several parts of the manufacture, and the French were so apt to learn, and so dextrous and chearful in teaching each other, that, in a few years, they could do without English instructors. Being thus able to furnish their own people, to clothe the nobility and gentry, nay, even the king himself, for he would wear nothing that was not the manufacture of his

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own ſubjects, they not only, in a few years, excluded the Engliſh woollen manufactures from their country by a law, but began to turn their eyes abroad, and prepare to rival the Engliſh in all the foreign markets of Europe, as in Spain, Portugal, and Italy, as alſo in Aſia and Africa, but eſpecially in Turkey and Barbary. To effect this, the great Colbert took theſe meaſures: he firſt informed himſelf of the ſeveral ſorts of the Britiſh manufactures ſold in every foreign market, of which he had pieces and patterns brought him; and he erected particular works for making theſe very goods; and, what was another maſter-ſtroke of politics, he wiſely encouraged the merchants to export them, by cauſing credit to be given them out of the public ſtock, that is, by the king, even till the return for theſe goods came home. This was particularly done with the Turkey merchants at Marſeilles, who had credit out of the royal treaſury till the return of their ſhips from Smyrna and Scanderoon; by which politic encouragement the Marſeillians firſt ſupplanted the Engliſh in the Levant trade, wherein we are too ſenſible they have ſurpriſingly increaſed ever ſince.

Having thus far given a pretty ample account of the French commercial concerns, we ſhall now conſider the inhabitants as to their hiſtory, and ſome other intereſting particulars.

Origin of the French. The want of literature, in the earlier ages of the world, has made it extremely difficult to diſcover the origin of nations. The beſt that can be learnt of that of France is that it was peopled after the flood by the poſterity of Gomer, the eldeſt ſon of Japhet. Theſe, growing numerous, compoſed many nations, to whom the Greeks and Romans gave the general name of Galli or Celtæ. Under that name they were known in the time of Tarquinius Priſcus, the fifth king of Rome, and poſſeſſed a country of very large extent, comprehending not only all preſent France, but part of Italy alſo, as far as the river Rubicon, which falls into the Adriatic ſea between Ravenna and Rimini, and all that part of Germany and Belgium, that lies within the river Rhine. The Gauls remained ſubject to the Roman empire from the time of Julius Cæſar till the Franks or French entered it. Theſe were a warlike people of Germany, who poſſeſſed all the country that lies between the Rhine and the Weſer, and from the German ocean in the north, to the river Maine in the ſouth. They conſiſted of the nations of the Sicambri, Bructeri, Salii, and Cheruſci, who conquered the country

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country beyond the Maine, and making the banks of the river their chief seat, gave the name of Franconia to the country now called so. The first notice of them in history under the denomination of Franks, is in the reigns of Valerian and Galienus, about the year of Christ 260; after which they are frequently mentioned on account of their plunders and pillage in Gaul. Constantine the Great, took their kings Ascaric and Ragaise prisoners, and exposed them to wild beasts, for having violated their faith in making war against the Romans.

About the year 412, the Armorici, who inhabited the maritime provinces of Gaul, as Flanders, Picardy, Normandy, and Britanny, revolted from the Romans; they were joined by the Franks, who by that means possessed themselves of the German and Belgic provinces of Gaul, which the Romans were forced to grant them. Soon after this they chose Pharamond for their king. He reigned ten years, and had his seat in Gaul; but about the time of his death, the Romans beat the Franks out of Gaul again, and took from them the lands they had given them; which Clodion the son and successor of Pharamond endeavoured to regain; but he was beaten back by Aetius the Roman general. Clodion was some years without undertaking any thing, having chosen for the place of his residence the castle of Disperg on the other side of the Rhine; but hearing by his spies, that there were no garrisons in the town of the Belgica Secunda, now the territory of Rheims, he set out immediately with his army, and keeping his march secret, made himself master of Bavay, Cambray, and some other neighbouring places.

Merovee succeeded Clodion. In his time Attila king of the Huns invaded Gaul with a numerous army; for the relief of which Merovee joined his forces with those of Aetius the Roman general, and of Theodoric king of the Visigoths, who altogether fell upon Attila, and in battle killed two hundred thousand of his men, as historians report, and drove him out of Gaul. Aetius, who was the great support of the Roman power in Gaul, was soon after massacred by Valentinian, who himself was killed by Maximus. This put the Roman affairs into such disorder, that Merovee had time to extend his conquests, which he did over all Picardy, Normandy, and part of the Isle of France. His son Childeric took Paris, Orleans, and several other cities, and established the French monarchy. Clovis his successor freed the French wholly from the Roman power, and gave the name of France

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to all the country that reaches from the Rhine to the Loire.

After the death of Clovis the dominion of the Franks was divided into two parts, viz. Oſterick, or the Eaſtern kingdom, called by corruption Auſtria and Auſtraſia; and Weſterick, or the weſtern part or kingdom, called Neuſtria. The former contained all Old France, and the country beyond the Maine, which they had conquered, together with Rheims, Chalons, Chambray, and Laon, which was from that time a ſeparate kingdom, the ſeat of which was Metz in Lorrain. Aquitaine was not comprized under the name of France, nor Burgundy, even after it had been conquered, nor Britannia Armorica, at leaſt the lower, as being an independent ſtate. Neuſtria contained all the country that lies between the Meuſe and the Loire, which was again divided into three kingdoms; 1. Of France, the capital of which was Paris; 2. Of Orleans; and 3. Of Soiſſons. When the French had afterwards ſubdued the Viſigoths and Burgundians, the kingdoms of Acquitaine and Burgundy were erected. All theſe kingdoms were ſeveral times united and divided, as the royal family happened to be more or leſs numerous. But the title of kings of France, hiſtorians have give to thoſe only who ruled at Paris.

There are reckoned three races of theſe monarchs. The firſt is called the Merovingian from Merovee, who, putting aſide the children of Clodion, cauſed himſelf to be choſen king, and fixed his regal ſeat in Gaul. This race continued during the reigns of nineteen kings, and ended in Childeric III. who being a very weak man, was degraded by the aſſembly of the ſtates, and Pepin, the ſon of Charles Martel, maire of the palace, was elected in his ſtead. With him begins the ſecond race, called the Carlian, or Carlovingian.

The maire of the palace was an officer of great dignity and power. He was at firſt choſen by the nobility, and confirmed by the king, and was intruſted with the management of all affairs of ſtate. The power of the maires became in time almoſt abſolute; for, by reaſon of the weakneſs and ſupineneſs of the kings, they increaſed it as they pleaſed, ſo that at laſt it became hereditary. Pepin and his ſon Charles, ſurnamed Martel, both ſucceſſively maires of the palace, were in a manner kings themſelves, during the reigns of Dagobert II. Chilperic, Clotaire, and Thierry; and after the death of Thierry, Charles made himſelf chief governor, with the title of maire and duke of the French; in which poſts he was ſucceeded by his

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ſons Carloman and Pepin, during an inter-regnum of ſix or ſeven years; and after the deprivation of Childeric, Pepin obtained the royal dignity.

Pepin was ſucceeded by his ſon Charlemagne, or Charles the Great, an epithet the noble actions he performed very juſtly deſerved; for it was he that conquered the barbarous inhabitants of the moſt northern parts of Germany, and eſtabliſhed Chriſtianity and civil government among them, after he had overcome Wittikind, the laſt king of the Saxons. He alſo conquered the Boii, or Bavarians, became king of Germany, and in the pope's quarrel carried his arms into Italy againſt Deſiderius king of Lombardy, who attempted to diminiſh the papal power, and make himſelf king of Italy. Charles defeated him, ſeized his kingdom, and was crowned king of Lombardy. He alſo conquered the Saracens in Spain, and the Huns, Danes, and Normans, who infeſted his own countries, and was finally choſen emperor by the Romans, being crowned as ſuch on Chriſtmas-day, in the year 800. Thus he erected a new weſtern empire, and made himſelf the greateſt prince in the world. But this mighty monarchy was in a little time reduced to his former limits; for his ſon Lewis the Debonnair, or Meek, divided the kingdom of France among his three ſons, the kingdom of Italy having been given during the life of Charles the Great, to Barnard the natural ſon of Pepin, one of that emperor's children, but who died before him. After the death of Bernard, Lewis the Debonnair, having taken his ſon Lotharius into partnerſhip of the empire, gave him alſo the kingdom of Italy; his ſon Pepin he made king of Aquitaine, Lewis king of Bavaria, and Charles king of Rhætia. Though ſome of Charles the Great's poſterity ſucceeded in the empire, yet his family degenerating, they not only loſt that title, but Charles, ſurnamed the Simple, the great-grandſon of Lewis the Debonnair, was for ſome time kept out of the throne of France alſo, by Lewis and Carloman, his baſtard brothers; and after them by the emperor Charles the Fat, and by Eudes earl of Anjou; and though he obtained it at laſt, he could not enjoy it quietly, being forced to reſign it to Rodolph of Burgundy, who kept it two years, and after his death the ſon of Charles the Simple was reſtored. But his ſon and grandſon were diſturbed by Hugh Capet, earl of Paris and Anjou, and maire of the palace, deſcended from Eudes above mentioned, who, after the death of Lewis the Faineant, or Lazy, was choſen king by the aſſembly of the ſtates held at Noyon

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in the month of May, 988, and began the third, or Capetine race of the kings of France, which is ſtill upon the throne.

Lewis IX. a direct deſcendant from Hugh Capet, and who, on account of his various expeditions againſt the Infidels, obtained the ſurname of St. Lewis, died in 1270, and left two ſons, Philip and Robert. The latter eſpouſed Agnes, daughter of John III. ſon to Hugh duke of Burgundy, by the heireſs of Archambault, ſigneur de Bourbon. This lordſhip coming thus to Robert count de Clermont, ſon to St. Lewis, in right of his wife's mother, he thereupon aſſumed the name of Bourbon. His family ſucceeded to the crown about three hundred years afterwards, on the murder of Henry III. the laſt monarch of the houſe of Valois, by James Clement, a Dominican friar, in the perſon of Henry king of Navarre, who was the ninth in deſcent from Robert count of Clermont, and whoſe claim to the crown was clear, as next heir male, all the other branches from the other ſtock being extinct, and none remaining but women, or princes deſcended from the women, who by the Salic law cannot inherit the crown. This prince, by the ſtyle of Henry IV. and the Great, annexed to the crown of France, Bearne, Bigorre, and the counties of Foix and Breſſe, which were his private patrimony. Being aſſaſſinated by Ravillac, on the 24th of May, 1610, he was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon Lewis XIII. whoſe ſon Lewis XIV. born September 5, 1638, ſucceeded him in the throne May 14, 1643, and was crowned at Rheims, June 7, 1655. He died September 1, 1715, and was ſucceeded by Lewis XV. his great-grandſon, born February 15, 1710; for the dauphin, ſon to Lewis XIV. died of the ſmall-pox, April 14, 1711, and the duke of Burgundy, ſon to the dauphin, died February 18, 1712, ſix days after his ducheſs. They left two ſons, the eldeſt of whom died the 8th of March following; ſo that when the late king of France was born, there were three heads between him and the crown, who all died within leſs than a year.

Character and government of the princes of the houſe of Bourbon.

The French hiſtory, ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon, which contains but four reigns, may be ſaid to include almoſt all that need be known of the general hiſtory of Europe. Henry IV. in reſpect to public affairs, was a great and good prince; he loved his ſubjects as his children, promoted trade, and maintained juſtice throughout his territories. He was not inclined to diſturb or injure

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jure his neighbours; but, rather contented with his own dominions, he was so far persuaded, that a steady and unalterable balance of power was for the common benefit of Christendom, that in the latter end of his reign and life, he formed a design to establish it, and to cut of pretences for wars in succeeding times, by means of a perpetual congress. In order to this, he thought it requisite to lessen the power of the house of Austria, by depriving it of those dominions acquired without any just title in Italy, which he proposed to have erected into separate principalities, as most conducive to a general peace, and the common benefit of the inhabitants. But while he meditated these great and glorious projects for the good of mankind, and had assembled in Champaigne a numerous army, which was on the very point of marching to put them in execution, a period was put to his days and schemes by an infamous assassin, in the fifty-seventh year of his age, and twenty-second of his reign.

Lewis XIII. his son, enlarged the royal authority far beyond its ancient and legal bounds. This was the great, the distinguished character of his reign. Before his time, the nobility were potent, and even the meanest of the people were in some measure free; but at his decease the royal authority had almost swallowed up all; and men's safeties and fortunes, as well as power and preferment, depended on the will of the king and his ministers. Yet such was the abject flattery, or rather ridiculous folly of those times, that his subjects bestowed on him the surname of Just; as if he had been more careful in observing the laws, and maintaining the ancient and legal constitution of France, that any of his predecessors; whereas in fact, he did more towards destroying it than all the kings that had reigned before him. It is true, this did not proceed so much from himself as from his minister, cardinal Richelieu; but that minister could have done nothing without the assistance of his authority; and if he had preferred the welfare of his subjects to the possession of boundless power, he would never have given into his schemes. Cardinal Mazarin, the creature and disciple of Richelieu, pursued his master's instructions, if not with equal genius, yet with much greater cunning; so that in the space of thirty-seven years, for so long the ministry of these two cardinals lasted, the design of rendering the government of France, which in former times resembled the other governments of Europe, an absolute monarchy, was brought to bear, not more to the oppression and misfortune of

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thoſe, who from being ſubjects only, were made ſlaves thereby, than to the terror and confuſion of all Chriſtendom ever ſince. It may hence appear, that the perſonal characters of princes are not of any great conſequence in altering of governments. Lewis XIII. was, in parts, very far inferior to Henry the Great, and yet he acquired much more power by liſtening to the ſuggeſtions of a miniſter, who governed him, whereas his father governed his miniſters as well as his ſubjects. There are very great qualities requiſite in a prince who aims himſelf at overturning a conſtitution; but paſſive obſtinacy is a quality not hard to be met with, and this conducted by a deſigning miniſter will do the work full as well.

The cares of his ſucceſſor, Lewis XIV. after the concluſion of peace of Utrecht, were ſuch as ought to have been the cares of his whole life; they were bent to ſecure the ſucceſſion of the royal family, and to reſtore the trade and welfare of his ſubjects, to both which he appeared now very ſollicitous; nor did he make any ſcruple of confeſſing, that experience had convinced him of the error of his former conduct, and the follies of which he had been guilty, in preferring his own grandeur to the good of his people, and the luſtre of his reign to the ſafety of the ſtate. Before this period, as a king, he was ambitious with reſpect to his neighbours, arbitrary towards his ſubjects, and boundleſs in both. With regard to the former, he had no tie but intereſt; and the latter, no law but his will. He entirely ſubverted the conſtitution of his country. He left the princes of his blood without power, and his parliaments without authority. The force of his kingdom he reduced to a ſtanding army; the property of his ſubjects he rendered precarious, and every rank of them entirely dependent upon the will of his ſucceſſor, under whom the ſame maxims were invariably purſued, though with the ſhew of greater lenity and moderation, that prince being naturally good, but weak.

Ancient conſtitution of France.

The greateſt lawyers, and beſt hiſtorians of France agree, that the power of their kings was anciently reſtrained, not only within narrower bounds than at preſent, but, in reality, they were as much limited as any monarchs could be. That in all governments, ſupreme and abſolute power is, and muſt be lodged ſomewhere, we find generally agreed; that, according to the old conſtitution in France, this did not reſide in their princes, but in the general aſſembly of the ſtates of the kingdom, as in all other Gothic conſtitutions, is certain. But, as it

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was found inconvenient to hold theſe general aſſemblies very frequently, ſo, to hinder the encroachments of their kings while they were not ſitting, part of their powers were transferred to certain committees, which gave riſe to the parliaments of France, and particularly to that of Paris, which was at firſt ambulatory, that is, attended the perſon of the king; but, in proceſs of time, was fixed to that city, for the convenience both of prince and people. The ancient prerogatives of this aſſembly plainly prove, that as repreſentatives of the ſtates, the ſovereignty was really in them, for amongſt others they had theſe three; firſt, they judged the peers and great men of the kingdom, over whom the king in this reſpect had no power; for in caſe they were ſuſpected of failing in their duty to the conſtitution, they were to be tried by their equals, according to the known law of the kingdom; ſecondly, all the great officers of ſtate took their oaths in parliament; from which it is manifeſt, that they were bound not to the perſon of the king, but ſwore to him in his political capacity, and for the general benefit of the ſtate; thirdly, they had the right of regiſtering, approving, and promulgating the king's edicts, without which they had not the ſanction or force of laws. Theſe inſtances unqueſtionably demonſtrate, that, according to the Gallic conſtitution, their kings were not abſolute; but all theſe checks are now taken away. The aſſembly of the ſtates is a thing no longer heard of; and as for parliaments, they are but ſhadows of what they were, or rather, are now become the inſtruments of that power they were inſtituted to reſtrain.

Riſe of the Parliaments of France.

The liberty of the ſubject is entirely at the mercy of the king; he impriſons whom he pleaſes, without giving any account; and, whenever he finds it requiſite, appoints ſuch judges for the trial of offenders as he thinks fit. The great officers of ſtate take their oaths to and from him; ſo that they now belong entirely to the king, who appoints, removes, extends, or retrenches their authority as he pleaſes. The regiſtering of edicts is become a mere matter of form; the parliaments do, indeed, ſometimes remoſtrate, but in the end the king's will and pleaſure always prevail. Thus it is, that the whole government of this great nation has been, by the arts of cardinal Richelieu, drawn entirely into the hands of the crown and its miniſters, the utmoſt pains having been ſince taken to reduce it into ſuch a ſyſtem, that this power might influence

Abſolute power of the king.

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the whole, and keep every branch thereof in a ſtrict and conſtant dependence.

State of the Galli-can church.

We have heard much of the Gallican church, and of its freedom; but from the time of cardinal Richelieu, this freedom is become a mere engine of ſtate, by the help of which the king has ſometimes made uſe of the power of the clergy, and at other times of that of the pope, to extend his own. It was with a view to this, that the Proteſtants of France were in general expelled, by revoking the edict of Nantz. Lewis XIV was reſolved to make himſelf ſupreme in church as well as ſtate, the true reaſon why he would admit of no diſſenters; and he and his ſucceſſor have carried this into execution, notwithſtanding the nominal authority of the pope, which was often made uſe of by them, and cannot now be turned againſt the king. The clergy of France, are, however, a very great and conſiderable body. They conſiſt at preſent of eighteen archbiſhops, and one hundred and thirteen biſhops, all named and appointed by the king; who has likewiſe the nomination of ſeven hundred and ſeventy abbies, and of the ſuperiors of three hundred and ſeventeen convents of nuns. This muſt give the crown great influence over that part of its ſubjects, which were formerly the leaſt attached to it. The ordinary revenue ariſing from the tenths of the clergy, amounts to one million two hundred thouſand livres per annum; beſides which, in the general aſſemblies of the clergy, free gifts are ſo conſtantly expected, even in the times of peace, that this additional revenue is computed annually at two millions; but in the time of war the extraordinary free gifts render it much more.

Civil and political go-vernments.

As to the civil government, the king has a great council of ſtate, and twelve parliaments, beſides other courts, ſuch as generalities and intendancies, for the management of the revenue; of the former there are twenty-ſix, and of the latter more. As for the political government, it is managed by ſeveral great councils, or rather committees of council, of which there are at preſent four, which are ſtyled the council of ſtate, the council of diſpatches, the royal council of finances, and the royal council of commerce. The firſt civil officer in France is the chancellor, and the only officer that is not removeable at the king's pleaſure; that is, he cannot be removed without being brought to a trial; but the king may, and frequently does, take the ſeals from him, and put them into the hands of another,

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another, with the title of keeper and power of chancellor. There is generally a perſon at the head of the miniſtry, either with or without the title of prime-miniſter, and with more or leſs authority, as the king pleaſes. For the management of public affairs, there are four principal ſecretaries of ſtate, for the ſeparate departments of foreign affairs, domeſtic concerns, war, and the marine. The principal officer of the revenue is the comptroller-general of the finances, who has under him a multitude of intendants and other officers, ſubject to the direction of the council of finances. The ordinary revenue of the crown is generally computed at ſix millions ſterling; but in time of war a much larger ſum is levied.

Military eſtabliſhment.

As the eccleſiaſtical and civil government was moulded in the compaſs of two reigns, into ſuch a form as made the French wholly ſubſervient to the purpoſes of the crown; ſo the military eſtabliſhment, as it now ſtands, was entirely the work of Lewis XIV. for, before his time, a few companies of the guards, and four old corps, as they are ſtill called, were all the ſtanding troops of France. It was by the help of his ſtanding army, that he gained ſo many and great advantages over his neighbours, and annexed ſeveral conquered provinces to his dominions; which, at the ſame time, afforded him an opportunity of increaſing the number of theſe regular troops, and of covering his frontiers on every ſide with abundance of ſtrong fortreſſes.

Reflections on the premiſes.

The grandeur of the crown, which with ſome impropriety is in that country ſtyled the glory of France, appears to be the ultimate aim of the French miniſters; not but by the wiſe regulations that have been made ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon, France may vie with, and even ſurpaſs in the perfection of its police, all the other ſtates of Europe; but to ſpeak impartially, it is, indeed, on keeping up this ſpirit, that the peace and ſafety of the government, as it is now adminiſtered, depends; and it is impoſſible for the French court to drop her influence abroad, without manifeſtly hazarding her quite at home; ſo that to expect a French monarch ſhould adhere ſtrictly to treaties, and relinquiſh all views upon his neighbours, is to expect a golden age; a thing that may be wiſhed even by the wiſe, but which fools themſelves can never hope to ſee. The French power was at its greateſt height at the time Lewis XIV. made the peace of Nimeguen, or a very little after. All the ſucceeding wars exhauſted that nation prodigiouſly, though its views, in ſome meaſure, might

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might have been ſerved by them; and if we conſider the diſtreſſes of France before the definitive treaty of peace, 1763, we cannot help ſaying, that her glory or grandeur, which occupies ſo much her cares and attention, was ſcarce ever eclipſed to the degree it had been in that war: her armies were beaten in every quarter of the globe; her fleets ſunk, ſhattered, and made captive, and her public credit was almoſt expiring; ſo that whatever her reſources may ſtill be, it is certain, the advantages ſhe enjoyed before that war will hardly be recovered in a courſe of years.

SECT. V.

Of Italy.

Boundaries and extent of Italy.

ITALY is bounded on the weſt by the Alps, which ſeparate it from the adjacent provinces of France; on the north it is likewiſe bounded by the Alps, and on the eaſt by the dominions of the houſe of Auſtria; on the one ſide it is waſhed by the Mediterranean, from the country of Nice to the coaſts of the kingdom of Naples; and, on the other, by the Adriatic and the gulf of Venice; a narrow ſtreight divides it from the fruitful iſland of Sicily, which, however, has been in all times, reckoned a part of it. From the frontiers of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, it is about ſeven hundred and fifty miles in length; and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy, to thoſe of the dominions of the ſtate of Venice, which is its greateſt breadth, about four hundred, though in ſome parts it is ſcarce a fourth part ſo broad.

Soil, climate, arts, commerce, &c.

The ſoil and climate, in different parts, are as oppoſite as can well be imagined. In Switzerland, and the county of the Griſons, the mountains are as high as in any part of Europe; the earth barren, and the air bleak and ſharp; the plains of Lombardy again are juſtly ſtyled the garden of Europe, as well on account of their fertility, as the ſerenity and pleaſantneſs of the climate; in the dominions of the church, and in the kingdom of Naples, the heat in ſummer is exceſſive, to which, however, they are indebted for the richeſt fruits, and the moſt odoriferous flowers, as well as oil, wine, ſilk, and other valuable commodities. There are few countries in the world better watered than this, in reſpect to ſprings, rivulets, ſmall

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and great lakes, as well as large rivers. Thus bountifully dealt with by nature, it has alſo, from the ingenuity and application of its inhabitants, been eſteemed the mother of arts and commerce, in reſpect to the reſt of Europe; its reputation is ſtill ſo high with regard to the firſt, that the tour of Italy is conſidered as the neceſſary concluſion of a polite education; and, in reference to the latter, though the trade of Italy is now nothing to what it was, yet the ports of Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, and Venice, to ſay nothing of thoſe in Sicily, make ſtill a very great figure; and derive great advantages to the ſovereigns in whoſe dominions they are ſituated. Beſides all this, the ſeveral countries of Italy have ſuch funds of natural riches, and the people are ſo happy at improving, as well as inventing manufactures, that they ſtand in need only of ſome favourable juncture to revive their ancient ſpirit, and to make as great a figure as their anceſtors did in compariſon with other nations.

General Hiſtory.

This great and fruitful country of Italy has been, as high as hiſtory records, either the ſeat of empire, or the theatre of war. It was then in the ſame ſituation that it now is, cantoned out into various little ſtates and republics, all living in diſtruſt, at leaſt, if not in war with each other. The Roman commonwealth changed the face of things by ſwallowing up all, and making herſelf the head and miſtreſs of Italy. The diviſion of her empire proved the ruin of it, and the provinces adjacent to Italy being loſt, the barbarous nations that conquered them very ſoon became maſters even of the imperial city of Rome, and divided Italy once more into ſeparate principalities, all of which have been extremely ſubject to revolutions, ſometimes from the ſuperior power of foreign invaders, and as often from the effects of inteſtine commotions; ſo that no hiſtory is fuller of events, and conſequently more capable of gratifying curioſity, and fixing attention, than that of this country.

Government.

There is no kind of government ſubſiſting in any part of Europe, of which ſomething of the like kind is not to be found in Italy. As to the ſovereignty of the pope, it is peculiar to this country, being veſted in a ſpiritual perſon, and yet altogether a temporal power, exerciſed as abſolutely, and, as is generally ſuppoſed, with more policy, than in any other monarchy. The dominions of thoſe two crowned heads (for as yet there are no more) that lie within its limits, are thoſe of his Sardinian majeſty at one end, and of the king of the Two Sicilies at the

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the other. The duchy of Milan, once the largeſt and richeſt in this part of the world, together with the duchy of Mantua, and its dependencies, belong to the houſe of Auſtria. His imperial majeſty is conſidered as one of the Italian powers, not only in that capacity by which he claims a title, paramount to the greateſt part, if not the whole, but particularly alſo as grand-duke of Tuſcany. The infant duke of Parma is in poſſeſſion of a ſettlement, compoſed not only of that duchy and of Placentia, which was the patrimony of his anceſtors by the mother's ſide, but likewiſe of Guaſtalla. His ſerene highneſs the duke of Modena holds that duchy and Reggio, together with the duchy of Mirandola; and beſides theſe, there are ſome other leſſer princes who would take it ill if they were not ſtyled ſovereigns. The republic of Venice is an unmixed ariſtocracy, ſtill venerable for the wiſdom of its government, as heretofore formidable by the extent of its dominions, as well as a great naval force. The republic of Genoa is an ariſtocracy alſo, but not quite ſo pure as that of Venice. The Swiſs cantons, the Griſons their allies, and the city of Geneva, are ſo many different republics, each having its particular form of government, but owing their ſtrength to their confederacy, which renders them truly great and formidable. There are, beſides theſe two free ſtates, the dominions of which are ſurrounded by thoſe of ſovereign princes, to which notwithſtanding they owe no obedience, or even homage, the firſt of which is the commonwealth of Lucca, in the neighbourhood of Tuſcany, and the latter the republic of St. Marino, in the midſt of the pope's territories. Such is the diſtribution of power in Italy, and, in ſupporting this diſtribution, and maintaining each of theſe princes and ſtates in their reſpective rights, ſo as to prevent their encroaching upon each other, or being overborne by a foreign force, conſiſts the preſervation of the balance in Italy. We ſhall now conſider all theſe ſtates ſeparately, according to their diſtinct governments, beginning firſt with the

Dominions of the King of Sardinia.

THE dominions of his Sardinian majeſty, conſidered as duke of Savoy, and prince of Piedmont, have been always regarded as the key of Italy on the ſide of France; and in latter times this prince has been conſtantly looked upon as the natural maſter of the balance in Italy.

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Not that his dominions even now, when by various acquiſitions they are become much ſuperior to what they were under any of his anceſtors, qualify him to give law to his neighbours, or even to ſecure himſelf from the bad effects of a general alliance againſt him; but upon the ſcore of its being his intereſt to affect peace rather than war; and becauſe while he remains firm to his own intereſt, reaſon and experience ſhew, that he will never want allies willing to give him all the aſſiſtance he needs for the preſervation of his own territories, and maintaining that ſyſtem upon which their ſecurity and his own grandeur muſt always depend. His dominions in Italy, and contiguous to it, conſiſt principally of Piedmont; ſome diſtricts acquired by conqueſt or treaty; Savoy, and the iſland of Sardinia; of the laſt we ſhall ſpeak in our account of the European iſlands.

Piedmont. Piedmont is bounded on the eaſt by the duchies of Milan and Montferrat; by the territories of Genoa, and the country of Nice, on the ſouth; by High Dauphiné, and part of Savoy, on the weſt; and by the duchy of Aoſte, and part of the Milaneſe, on the north. The river Po divides it into two parts. Its length, from north to ſouth, is about a hundred and thirty miles, and breadth, from eaſt to weſt, where broadeſt, about ninety-four. It reaches from 43 deg. 25 min. to 45 deg. 50 min. of latitude and from 7 deg. to 8 deg. 30 min. of eaſt longitude. It is a very rich and fertile country, and one of the moſt pleaſant and plentiful in all Italy. It produces great abundance of corn of all ſorts, wines, and fruits in great variety; alſo hemp, flax, ſaffron, mulberries, to feed great quantities of ſilk-worms, ſilk here being a great manufacture; and affords, beſides good ſtore of cattle, ſome metals, and, in a word, plenty of every thing fit for man's uſe and delight; and it is ſo well peopled, that the Italians are wont to ſay, that the duke of Savoy has but one city in Italy, three hundred miles in compaſs.

Savoy. The duchy of Savoy is ſituated between France and Italy, on the weſt ſide of the Alps, bounded by the lake and territories of Geneva on the north; by Switzerland and Piedmont on the eaſt; by another part of Piedmont and Dauphiné on the ſouth; and by Franche Compté and Dauphiné on the weſt. It is a barren country, being, for the moſt part, encumbered with the high cold mountains of the Alps; however, there are ſome pleaſant fruitful vallies, producing corn, wine, and fruit; and they have large herds of cattle, and abundance of game, veniſon,

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and wild fowl, in their mountains, and plenty of fiſh in their lakes and rivers. Their greateſt misfortune is, that they lie open to the incurſions of the French; and whenever their prince is at war with that kingdom, Savoy is firſt made ſenſible of the ravages of the French troops, and uſed as a conquered country, though, upon every treaty of peace, it has hitherto been reſtored.

Commercial concerns. The commerce of the dominions of his Sardinian majeſty was heretofore ſo very inconſiderable, as to be ſcarce worthy of notice; but, by degrees, and under the two laſt reigns more eſpecially, things have been much changed. The ſtaple commodity of Piedmont is a kind of ſilk indiſpenſably neceſſary in many manufactures, and his Sardinian majeſty has put this under ſuch regulations as to make it riſe to the higheſt amount poſſible. The Engliſh alone have taken off the value of two hundred thouſand pounds of their raw ſilk annually, for ſeveral years; but their crops of ſilk-worms are ſometimes deſtroyed by ſtorms of hail, called the plague of Piedmont. The navigation of the Po enables the inhabitants of Turin, and the adjacent country, to carry on a conſiderable trade to Venice. There is a little, and but a little traffic ſtirring at Alexandria and Villafranca. Beſides all theſe, his Sardinian majeſty has gradually and ſilently poſſeſſed himſelf of all the paſſages by which the inland trade is carried on between France and Italy, and having it by this means in his power to lay what duties he thinks proper, derives from thence an additional revenue; which is not only of great conſequence in itſelf, but the more ſo by keeping the neighbouring ſtates in a kind of dependence, through fear of the injuries he might otherwiſe do the commerce of their ſubjects. Nothing can be of greater importance to the trade of the Britiſh nation than preſerving the balance in Italy: which, if loſt, muſt neceſſarily throw all that valuable branch of commerce, in which we have at preſent ſo large a ſhare, and from which we derive annually a conſiderable profit, into other hands, and, which is worſt of all, into the hands of the French; a thing againſt which we have as much reaſon to guard as a trading nation, as the king of Sardinia himſelf has cauſe to oppoſe, as far as poſſible, the growth of the French, out of regard to his own ſafety. This ſufficiently ſhews, that our intereſts are really mutual, and that there is nothing of political art in the expediency of ſupporting this monarch againſt all his enemies, though at a large expence to ourſelves.

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Theodoric, king of the Goths, gave the country of Piedmont to the Heruli, after he had conquered the famous Odoacer, and ſtripped him of his dominions in Italy. The Heruli being afterwards ſubdued by the Lombards, Aripert, their ſeventeenth king, made a preſent of it to the ſee of Rome; but as it lay too far from that metropolis, and the grant was not confirmed by any of that monarch's ſucceſſors, it fell into the hands of the kings of Italy, of the houſe of Charles the Great. Thomas, the ſon of Humbert III. and after him Peter, ſurnamed Little Charlemagne, the former the ſeventh, and the latter the tenth earl of Savoy, made themſelves maſters of the greateſt part of this country by force of arms; the one in the year 1210, and the other in 1259; ſince which time the eldeſt ſon of the houſe of Savoy is ſtyled prince of Piedmont. The marquiſate of Saluzzo was afterwards annexed to it by the marriage of a daughter of that family with Charles I. duke of Savoy, in the year 1481.

Hiſtory of the dukes of Savoy, now kings of Sardinia.

This family is, according to the generality of genealogiſts, deſcended from the famed Figuardo, king of Saxony, in the year 636; which, if true, it muſt have preſerved itſelf ever ſince, that is, upwards of eleven hundred years, in a continued ſeries of heroic princes, without ever vitiating or interrupting their pedigree. They are accordingly ranked among the greateſt princes of Italy, and their family has given birth to no leſs than five emperors and four kings. But we need not, for our purpoſe, aſcend any higher than Victor Amadeus II. the father of the late king of Sardinia, and who, in his lifetime, was eſteemed one of the greateſt captains, as well as one of the ableſt politicians in Europe. His whole ſtudy was the balance of Italy, which he perfectly underſtood, and ſteadily purſued. His ſituation made this requiſite, his penetration brought this very early to his notice, and having once conceived its importance, it became his rule of action to his life's end. He ſucceeded his father duke Charles Emanuel, in the year 1675, and that by a very ſurpriſing accident. He was then a boy, and had juſt began his exerciſes; his father who had a true foreſight of his great qualities, was extremely fond of him, and coming one day to ſee him ride, the young prince had the misfortune to be thrown from his horſe with ſuch violence, that thoſe about him cried out he was killed, which affected duke Charles Emanuel to ſuch a degree, that he fainted upon the ſpot, and died in a few

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days of the fright. His mother, the ducheſs-dowager of Savoy, governed his dominions during the minority of Victor Amadeus; and when he had attained to an age fit for marriage, ſhe negociated a match for him with the infanta, who was then eſteemed heireſs of the kingdom of Portugal, which was carried ſo far, that the duke de Cadaval came with a Portugueſe ſquadron to Nice, in order to have carried his highneſs to Liſbon. But the young prince ſuſpecting he might loſe his hereditary countries, and poſſibly miſs of the foreign crown he was ſeeking, changed his mind ſuddenly, and broke off the marriage. Some time after he eſpouſed Anna Maria of Orleans, the eldeſt daughter of Philip of Orleans, only brother to the Lewis XIV. by Henrietta Maria, daughter of our king Charles I. ſo that he became nearly allied to our royal family; and his ſon, the preſent king of Sardinia, is the firſt prince of the Roman catholic line after the heirs male of the houſe of Stuart, but excluded from this ſucceſſion by the Act of Settlement.

It was in virtue of this marriage, that, in the beginning of his reign, the duke of Savoy went into the meaſures of France, and, at the inſtigation of Lewis XIV. began a violent perſecution againſt his Proteſtant ſubjects in the Vallies, about the year 1685, which threw his whole country into blood and confuſion. But it was not long before he perceived his error, and that nothing could be ſo fatal to a prince as depriving himſelf of a great part of his ſubjects. He was alſo convinced that the French monarch meant him no better than the reſt of his neighbours; and therefore, when the firſt grand alliance was formed at the Hague, in 1690, he took care to be included in it, and ventured ſo far as to ſtake his dominions to preſerve his independency.

His dominions ſuffered greatly in the courſe of the war, but at length he happily extricated himſelf from all the difficulties he had laboured under. In 1706, aſſiſted by the allies under prince Eugene, he attacked the French in their lines before Turin, beat them, and, by a ſingle victory, recovered Piedmont and ſaved Italy. The very next year he invaded France in his turn, forced the paſſage of the Var, marched directly through Provence, and formed the ſiege of Toulon, which, though it miſcarried, he continued the war with his own forces, and obliged the French to keep an army on that ſide conſtantly, to prevent his irruptions, which weakened their forces elſewhere, and convinced them he was no contemptible enemy.

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At the concluſion of the treaty of Utrecht, the late queen Anne inſiſted upon the ceſſion to him of the kingdom of Sicily, and took care that the crown of Spain, the heirs of Philip V. failing, ſhould be entailed upon this prince. France reſtored to him the duchy of Savoy, and the county of Nice, and yielded to him likewiſe in perpetuity, the valley of Pragelas, with the forts of Exilles and Feneſtrelles, the vallies of Oux, Bardonache, and Chateau Dauphiné; but, on the other hand, he yielded the valley of Barcellonetta to the crown of France. His moſt Chriſtian majeſty likewiſe confirmed the ceſſions that were made by the emperor, of a part of Montferrat, the provinces of Alexandria and Valentia, the countries between the Po and the Tenaro, the Lomelin, the valley of Seſſia, and the equivalent that was to be given for Vigevanaſco.

All this contributed to make the king of Sicily, as he was now ſtyled, a very conſiderable prince; and he would have ſoon become much more conſiderable, if he had remained longer in poſſeſſion of Sicily, where he began to make himſelf very agreeable to the people. But the Spaniards, on the one hand, could not endure that he ſhould keep that iſland, and the late emperor, Charles VI. on the other, kept up his claim to it, and reſolved to take the firſt opportunity that ſhould offer of re-uniting it to his kingdom of Naples. In this dilemma, his beſt meaſure, he judged, was ſtriking in with his old allies, who, about this time, concluded the quadruple alliance. All he could obtain was the exchange of Sicily for Sardinia, which though a very great loſs, was better than nothing; but in a little time it ſeemed very doubtful, whether he would be able to obtain even this, the Spaniards making themſelves entirely maſters of that iſland, at the ſame time that they attacked and conquered a great part of Sicily. Theſe events paſſed in the year 1718, when the affairs of this monarch wore but an indifferent aſpect, till ſir George Byng, having entirely deſtroyed the Spaniſh fleet, put it in the power of the imperialiſts to make themſelves maſters of Sicily, and ſo far checked the ambition, and humbled the power of the catholic king, that he was once more content to abandon Sardinia, which, in conſequence of the alliance before mentioned, was delivered up to Victor Amadeus, who bore ever after the title of his Sardinian majeſty, and continued alſo in poſſeſſion of that iſland, ſituated very near his own dominions. It was very far from being an inconſiderable acquiſition, though cer-

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tainly much inferior to the noble kingdom of Sicily, which, for the preſent, fell under the dominion of the emperor Charles VI. and continued ſo, many years after, till it was once again recovered by the Bourbon family, and is like to remain in their poſſeſſion.

As ſoon as the king found himſelf in ſome meaſure extricated from thoſe troubles and diſputes with which his reign had hitherto been embarraſſed, he ſet about the execution of a project he had long before conceived, in cauſing to be compiled, under his direction, a complete code, or body of laws, for the uſe of his ſubjects, which he ordered to be publiſhed in 1723, and by which, in a great meaſure, he freed his people from trivial and vexatious ſuits, and from running into a tedious length of ſuch as were more neceſſary. He had alſo projected other regulations, and ſeemed wholly bent upon ſuch meaſures as might tend to the improvement of his country, and to better the condition of his people, when he found himſelf under a neceſſity of taking a very extraordinary ſtep, which was the reſignation of his crown in favour of his ſon the prince of Piedmont. He was moved thereto from various conſiderations, but chiefly from finding himſelf ſo extraordinarily preſſed by the emperor on one ſide, and by France and her allies on the other, that he could ſcarce determine with himſelf what ſide to take, and therefore inclined to make a chaſm in the government, rather than take either, in hopes of gaining time for his ſucceſſor. Add to this, that being much worn with the continual fatigues of a long and active reign, he was deſirous of paſſing a few years in repoſe with the counteſs St. Sebaſtian, whom he married when a private man, and retired with her to Chamberry in Savoy.

This reſignation took place with great ſolemnity in September, 1730, in preſence not only of the great miniſters of his court, but alſo of almoſt all the nobility and perſons of diſtinction in his dominions. Charles Emanuel II. his ſon and ſucceſſor, mounted the throne in the thirtieth year of his age; but it was not long before the old king, at the inſtigation of the lady he had made his wife, but not his queen, grew diſſatisfied with his private condition, and began to form deſigns of reſuming his dignity. The young king acted a very wiſe and diſcreet part; for there is nothing more certain, than that it was with the utmoſt reluctance and concern he took, by the advice of the great officers of ſtate and the nobility, the only meaſure that was left for him to take, that of confining the

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old king to his palace at Montcalier, where he remained to the day of his death, which was the laſt day of October, 1732, in the ſixty-ſeventh year of his age. Charles Emanuel fulfilled afterwards the great hopes he had given from his moſt tender years of making a mild and gracious, as well as gallant and wiſe prince. At his entrance into the government he met with many and unexpected croſſes, but he happily extricated himſelf from them without blemiſh to his character, and without prejudice to his adminiſtration. In 1733, the death of Auguſtus, king of Poland, occaſioning a rupture between the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon, he entered into an offenſive and defenſive alliance with France, to which Spain afterwards acceded, for reſtoring the balance of power in Italy, where he thought the houſe of Auſtria had acquired too great an aſcendant. During the courſe of this war he ſhewed a reach of politics much ſuperior to his age; but his behaviour in the battle of Guaſtalla obſcured all that he had hitherto performed; and the ſplendor of that victory, which was entirely owing to his perſonal courage and conduct, threw all his former great actions into ſhade, ſince all Europe rung now with his praiſes as a hero. However, while this war was drawing to an end, he had a convincing proof of the bad faith and ſiniſter intentions of the court of France to him; for the Britiſh miniſtry having concerted with the court of Vienna a plan of peace, by which Tortona and the Tortoneſe, Novara and the Novareſe, together with the Vigevanaſco, were to be detached from the duchy of Milan, and annexed for ever to Piedmont; the French court, by a clandeſtine negociation, deprived him abſolutely of one of thoſe diſtricts, and only left him his choice of the other two, in which ſituation he preferred the former. Theſe preliminaries were ſigned October 3, 1735, and were in every reſpect favourable to France, injurious to her allies, fatal to the houſe of Auſtria, and deſtructive of the balance of Europe.

From this time forth his Sardinian majeſty purſued with the greateſt ſteadineſs his proper and original ſyſtem, of reſtoring and preſerving to the utmoſt of his power the balance of Italy, by preventing the encroachments of either of the two great families, whoſe quarrels had ſo long diſturbed the peace of that country, and, indeed, of all Europe. After the death of the late emperor, Charles VI. when Spain was determined to puſh her pretenſions in Italy by force, and had alſo ſecured the aſſiſtance of

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France for that purpoſe, both threats and promiſes, with all the addreſs of the ableſt miniſters, were employed to bring his Sardinian majeſty into their meaſures. But though his affairs at that time were in a very embarraſſed ſituation, the queen of Hungary being puſhed to the utmoſt in Germany, and her forces weak in Italy, he reſolved to act in her favour. He defended the duchy of Milan againſt a Spaniſh invaſion, reduced Modena and Mirandola by force, obliged the Spaniſh army, under the duke de Montemar, to retire towards the frontiers of Naples, and defeated all the attempts of the French and Spaniards to penetrate into Piedmont. Theſe exploits were performed in 1742 and 1743, though, towards the cloſe of the former year, his enemies, by the dint of ſuperior force, made themſelves maſters of his duchy of Savoy, out of which he had driven them ſome time before.

In October, 1743, as the ſtrongeſt proof of his conſtant and unalterable reſolution to ſupport the common cauſe, and preſerve the Auſtrian dominions in Italy, he concluded with the queen of Hungary and his Britannic majeſty, the famous treaty of Worms, the only clear and explicit alliance entered into during the war; by the eighth article of which he obtained certain conceſſions in return for what he had already done, and in conſideration of what, by that treaty, he undertook to do, and which he afterwards moſt punctually and faithfully performed.

In the campaigns of 1744 and 1745, he afforded new proofs of his abilities, and of the ſignificancy of his friendſhip; and when the circumſtances of the queen of Hungary allowed her to reinforce her armies in Italy in the ſpring of the year 1746, his majeſty very early exerted himſelf, and, by a moſt ſurpriſing ſtroke of military courage and conduct, drove the French out of moſt of the places they had taken in his territories, and afterwards joining the Auſtrian army, ſhut them up in the city of Placentia. This brought on the famous battle of Rottofreddo, in which they opened a paſſage for a flight out of Italy, abandoning Genoa to the reſentment of her enemies, and retiring with precipitation into France, whither they were ſoon after followed by the allies. His Sardinian majeſty took this opportunity, and, availing himſelf of his good fortune, reduced Savona and Final, which remained in his poſſeſſion to the end of the war. Theſe glorious and

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inconteſtible proofs of his wiſdom, valour, and probity, received the next year a noble addition by the almoſt incredible victory gained at Exilles, by which the beſt laid plan the French and Spaniſh generals ever formed was entirely diſconcerted, and the flames of war hindered from ſpreading again into the heart of Italy.

By the ſixth article of the treaty concluded at Aix la Chapelle, he was obliged to reſtore to the republic of Genoa, and to the duke of Modena, whatever had been taken from them; ſo that by this means he loſt both Savona and Final, and conſequently, all that had been ſtipulated in his favour by the treaty of Worms, as to the laſt mentioned place; but, by the ſame article, the duchy of Savoy, and the county of Nice, were reſtored to him by the houſe of Bourbon. By the ſeventh article he made a ſolemn reſignation of that part of the duchy of Placentia which had been yielded to him by the empreſs-queen by the treaty before mentioned. But, by the twelfth article, the poſſeſſion of all his former acquiſitions, as well as thoſe that were left to him in conſequence of the treaty of Worms, were recognized and ſecured, and he likewiſe obtained the general guarantee eſtabliſhed by that treaty for thoſe provinces, as well as for all the reſt of his dominions, wherever ſituated, or in what manner ſoever acquired.

The territories of the king of Sardinia are now the ſame as they ſtood at the concluſion of the peace of Aix la Chapelle, for he bore no part in the late war; yet, by the peace, he obtained a confirmation and guarantee of that part of the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, which eſtabliſhes his reverſionary title to Placentia, on failure of the male line of the infant Don Philip; or in caſe that prince or his iſſue ſhould ſucceed to the crowns of his family. In the mean time the king of France engaged to pay him an annuity equivalent to the revenues of the territory in queſtion, and ſtipulated to remit immediately the capital ſum of thoſe revenues, on condition of repayment whenever the king of Sardinia enters into poſſeſſion of them. In this manner a ſubject of diſpute, which might otherwiſe embroil Italy, was happily ſettled. His father, as we have ſeen, was obliged to accept the iſland of Sardinia inſtead of Sicily: the duchy of Savoy, principality of Piedmont and county of Nice, are the ancient patrimony of the family; the duchy of Montferrat was formerly annexed to that of Mantua, but the houſe of Savoy

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voy had an old claim to it, which was revived when the laſt duke of Mantua was put under the ban of the empire in 1708, when the late king of Sardinia's father obtained the inveſtiture of it from the emperor, which was confirmed to him by the peace of Utrecht. Beſides theſe, the diſtricts which from time to time have been acquired at the expence of the duchy of Milan have augmented very conſiderably both the power and revenue of his Sardinian majeſty, and have alſo extended his influence in ſuch a manner as to make his friendſhip very eſſential to the ſafety of his neighbours; ſo that he is juſtly eſteemed one of the moſt conſiderable potentates in Italy, excluſive of his expectancies, which, if any of his family ſhould come to enjoy, would render them one of the moſt conſiderable powers in Europe.

Government. The king of Sardinia is an abſolute prince, and the crown hereditary; but the adminiſtration of the government, in the ſeveral territories he poſſeſſes, is committed to as many councils, and they are governed by their reſpective laws where the king does not interpoſe.

Turin. Turin, ſituate on the rivers Po and Doria, is the capital of his dominions. It is of a ſquare form, three miles round, and admired for its ſpacious ſquares, piazzas, and ſtreets, and particularly the king's palace, which, for the beauty of the apartments, the richneſs of the furniture, the elegant paintings, cabinets of curioſities, and library, is ſcarce to be paralleled. The chapel of the Holy Handkerchief, built of black marble, is much admired; this handkerchief tradition ſays, was preſented to our Saviour by a compaſſionate virgin, as he was going to his crucifixion, and, our Saviour having wiped his face with it, returned it, with his portrait impreſſed on the handkerchief in the moſt lively colours. We thought it neceſſary to be thus far explicit in regard to the dominions of his Sardinian majeſty, becauſe we conſider him in the light of our faithful ally, and as a prince of the greateſt conſequence in Italy. We ſhall now take a view of the Auſtrian dominions in this country.

Dominions of the Houſe of Auſtria, in Italy.

The dominions of the houſe of Auſtria in Italy are now confined to the duchies of Milan and Mantua. The former is one of the moſt fertile provinces in Italy: it is bounded on the weſt by Piedmont, Savoy, and Montferrat;

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ferrat; on the ſouth by the Appennine Mountains, and the territory of Genoa; on the eaſt by the ſtates of Venice, Parma, and Mantua; and on the north by the territory of Valais, the Griſons, and Switzerland. It is above two hundred and forty miles in length, and eighty miles in breadth; and is generally divided, together with the countries annexed to it, into thirteen diſtricts, viz. the Milaneſe Proper, the Paveſe, the Lodeſan, the Cremoneſe, the Comaſco, the county of Anghiera, the vallies of Seſſia, the Novareſe, the Vigevanois, the Lomeline, the Alexandrin, the Tortoneſe, and the territory of Bobbio: but of theſe ſeveral have been ceded to the king of Sardinia, ſome by the emperor Charles VII. and others by the late empreſs-queen; yet what remains to the houſe of Auſtria, may be ſtill conſidered as one of the faireſt and fineſt countries in her poſſeſſion. It lies in a moſt excellent climate, and is bleſſed with as fruitful a ſoil as any in Europe, watered by the noble rivers Po, Teſſin, Adda, and Seſſia, beſides the famous lakes of Maggiore, Lucano, and Como. But to come to the moſt material point, the revenues that are drawn from it amount to at leaſt three hundred thouſand pounds ſterling a year, beſides its furniſhing ſubſiſtence for thirty thouſand men, and enabling the court of Vienna to provide with governments and preferments, eccleſiaſtical, military, and civil, numbers of her dependents, and that too, which is no very eaſy matter, even to the extent of their hopes and wiſhes. Milan, the capital, is not well peopled, but is one of the moſt trading cities in Italy. Its principal manufactures are thoſe of the ſilken and woollen, ſteel and iron work, prodigiouſly neat, eſpecially ſword-hilts, ſnuff and tobacco-boxes, buckles, and the like. They likewiſe work very neat on a ſort of rock-cryſtal, which is brought hither from the Alps, ſome pieces of which are large enough to be worked into fine looking-glaſſes of about twelve inches by thirteen; but this work is very difficult. The citizens here are very rich, and gentry numerous. New Lodi, in the Lodeſan, is a rich and populous town on the river Adda. They breed a vaſt quantity of cattle in the territory about it, and it is famed for making excellent cheeſes, and of a monſtrous bigneſs, ſome of which weigh above five hundred pounds, and far exceed the Parmeſan in taſte; as alſo for dried neats tongues, and a fine ſort of earthen-ware, not inferior to the Dutch delft.

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The duchy of Milan formerly conſtituted the north part of the ancient Liguria, and was inhabited by the Inſubres when the Romans reduced it under their dominion. The Goths made a conqueſt of it in the fifth century, and were diſpoſſeſſed by the Lombards in 572. Milan then compoſing the beſt part of the kingdom of Lombardy, was ſubdued by Charlemagne the emperor, about the year 800; but in the wars between the emperors and the pope, Milan withdrew her allegiance, and aſſumed an independency, ſometimes in the form of a republic, and ſometimes governed by dukes. It was long contended for between the emperor and the French, till Charles V. expelled the French about the year 1525, and gave it with Spain to his ſon Philip II. to which crown it remained ſubject till the death of Charles II. the laſt heir male of the eldeſt branch of the houſe of Auſtria. In the war occaſioned by the contending powers for his ſucceſſion, the Imperialiſts, with the aſſiſtance of their allies, drove the French out of Italy in 1706. The Spaniards and French recovered it from the Imperialiſts in 1734; but by a ſubſequent peace it was reſtored to the emperor, on his ceding Naples and Sicily to don Carlos, the king of Spain's ſon; and the Auſtrians remain poſſeſſed of the duchy of Milan to this day, the empreſs queen governing it by her viceroy or vicar.

The duchy of Mantua is about fifty miles in length, but ſo unequal in breadth, that there is no ſaying any thing of it with certainty. The capital is very large, and one of the beſt fortreſſes in Italy, both by art and nature. The country, which is very fine, abounds in corn, fruit, flax, ſilk, and cattle, and the revenue is uſually computed at about a fourth part of that of Milan. This duchy was alſo part of the kingdom of Lombardy, and was conquered by Charlemagne in the year 800. In the wars between the pope and the emperor, it aſſumed an independency, ſometimes as a republic, and ſometimes governed by dukes. Theſe dukes were of the family of Gonzaga, who held it till the year 1703, when Ferdinand Charles, the laſt duke, adhering to the French againſt the houſe of Auſtria, the emperor ſeized on this duchy as a fee of the empire; and the duke dying without iſſue in 1708, the Auſtrians ſtill keep poſſeſſion of the whole except Guaſtalla, a part of it, which by the peace of Aix la Chapelle, concluded in 1748, was allotted to don Philip of Spain, together with the duchy of Parma.

Dominions

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Dominions of the Infant Duke of Parma.

The duchies of Parma and Placentia form together a very conſiderable ſovereignty; in length, from weſt to eaſt, they are about ſixty Engliſh miles, and their breadth from ſouth to north is about forty. On the weſt they are bounded by the dominions of the empreſs-queen and the king of Sardinia; on the ſouth, by the territories of the republic of Genoa; on the eaſt by the duchies of Modena and Reggio; and on the north they are divided by the river Po from the duchies of Mantua and Milan. The climate is equally healthy and pleaſant, and the ſoil wonderfully fruitful; the vallies abound with all kinds of fruit, with rich paſtures and excellent vineyards; and in the mountains are both copper and ſilver mines. The inhabitants have prodigious herds of horned cattle, and numerous flocks of ſheep; the firſt enable them to make the beſt cheeſe in Italy, and, in the opinion of many, in Europe; and the latter furniſh them with vaſt quantities of very fine wool. The cities of Parma and Placentia are the only places of any conſequence in the royal infant's dominions: the former is an old irregular place and not very large, meanly fortified, but commanded by a caſtle of ſome ſtrength; the latter is larger, better ſituated, more beautiful, and more populous, within a very ſmall diſtance of the Po, which is a great convenience.

Parma underwent the fate of the reſt of Italy, till it became ſubject to the German emperors; it afterwards became ſubject to the pope, the Venetians, the Milaneſe, and the French ſucceſſively. Pope Julius II. in 1545, reduced it under the obedience of the ſee of Rome; and pope Paul III. created his natural ſon, Peter Lewis Farneſe, duke of Parma; but the male line failing, the late emperor Charles VI. granted it as a fee of the empire to don Carlos, ſon of the queen of Spain, and heir of the houſe of Parma, againſt which the pope proteſted, eſteeming it a fee of the holy ſee. Parma was afterwards relinquiſhed by don Carlos, on his being advanced to the throne of Sicily; but by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, Parma was allotted to the infant don Philip, his brother, together with the duchy of Guaſtalla in Mantua, which, indeed, is nothing more than a diſtrict of the duchy of Mantua, having been given as a proviſion for a younger branch of the ducal houſe of Gonzaga. It is ſeparated from the reſt of the royal infant's dominions by

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by a part of the duke of Modena's country, but the communication by the Po is, notwithſtanding, always open. Guaſtalla is a very neat and flouriſhing place, and the country about it both fruitful and pleaſant. Its revenue is computed at fifty or ſixty thouſand crowns; and that of Parma and Placentia formerly at ſix hundred thouſand crowns, but it may be doubted, whether the people can raiſe above two thirds of that ſum. It is, however, ſuppoſed that theſe duchies may maintain a regular force of about ſix thouſand men, without any great detriment to either prince or people. Theſe are all the territories that the royal infant poſſeſſes in Italy; and though in themſelves they may be juſtly reckoned very conſiderable, yet when we reflect on the royal birth, the high pretenſions, and illuſtrious marriage of his royal highneſs with the daughter of France, we cannot help being aſtoniſhed at the ſtrange profuſion of men and money with which this inconſiderable ſettlement was purchaſed. The daughter of France, Louiſa Elizabeth, with whom he was married, died December 4, 1759, and her daughter by him, married to Joſeph of Auſtria, king of the Romans, and now emperor of Germany, died the 27th of November, 1763. Don Philip had by his late ducheſs, a ſon, by name Ferdinand, born the 20th of January, 1750.

Dominions of the Duke of Modena.

THE eſtates of the duke of Modena have the duchies of Mantua and Guaſtalla on the north; the grand duchy of Tuſcany on the ſouth, with the territories of the republic of Lucca; the Bologneſe, and the duchy of Ferrara on the eaſt; and the duchy of Parma on the weſt. The extent of them from ſouth to north, is about fifty-ſix Engliſh miles, and they are about fifty miles in breadth from weſt to eaſt. The duchy of Modena, properly ſo called, comprehends one of the faireſt and moſt fruitful countries in Italy, abounding with corn, wine, oil, and fruits, very populous, and inhabited by an ingenious and induſtrious people. The ſmall country of Frignano bordering on the Bologneſe, is annexed to it on one ſide, and part of the country of Carfagnano on the other, the reſt belonging to the republic of Lucca. It is very mountainous, but far from being deſpicable on that account, as in theſe mountains there are mines of great value, and the inhabitants are a race of people as robuſt, hardy, and brave, as any in Italy. The duchy of Reggio lies

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lies weſt from that of Modena, and is by ſome accounted the more conſiderable duchy of the two; and indeed ſo it is, if we conſider its dependencies, ſuch as the principalities of Correggio and Carpi, the former heretofore poſſeſſed by the princes of the ſame name, and the latter belonging to the family of Pio. In the north-weſt corner of this duchy ſtands Bercello upon the Po, formerly a place of great ſtrength, yielded by the duke of Modena in 1701 to the imperialiſts, to facilitate the military operations in Italy, and for that reaſon, beſieged, taken, and entirely demoliſhed by the French in 1705.

The duchy of Mirandola, including that of Concordia, is about twenty miles in length, and five in breadth. It is a very beautiful and a very plentiful territory, full of villages, and the country round about them thoroughly cultivated. Mirandola is ſtrong by ſituation, and has been formerly well fortified. The city of Concordia ſtands on the Secchia, at the diſtance of ſix miles from Mirandola, between which cities there is a fine canal called the Naviſio, which facilitates the commerce of both. Theſe duchies were very great acquiſitions to the family of Eſte, their revenues at a moderate computation amounting to one hundred thouſand crowns a year; and in the whole, the duke of Modena, in time of peace, may be ſuppoſed to enjoy a revenue of about one hundred thouſand pounds a year at leaſt, with which he maintains a very ſplendid court, and when his circumſtances render it requiſite, can keep up a body of eight thouſand regular troops. The greateſt inconveniency in the ſituation of his country is, that it has no communication with the ſea, which might eaſily be removed, if he could recover either by treaty or force the duchy of Ferrara, which lies upon the gulf of Venice. It is to be obſerved alſo, that the weſtern part of the duchy of Reggio intervenes entirely between the duchy of Parma and that of Guaſtalla, ſo that they can have no communication but by the river Po. As this is very inconvenient for the infant duke, it has been ſurmized that he would reſtore to the empreſs-queen a part of the duchy of Guaſtalla, in order to engage her to grant the duke of Modena an equivalent for this part of his country; and if this negociation is ever brought to bear, that equivalent will be eaſily found, ſince the country of Novellara, which is likewiſe a part of the Mantuan, lies in the midſt of the eſtates of the duke of Modena, and would be very convenient for him. On the other hand, it has not been long ſince rumoured as

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if his ſerene highneſs was deſirous of exchanging for it the countries that he holds in Hungary, which to him, no doubt, would be very acceptable, but will hardly appear in the ſame light to the houſe of Auſtria.

The duchy of Modena underwent the ſame revolutions with the adjacent countries, till it was annexed to the marquiſate of Ferrara. It was poſſeſſed alternately by the pope and the family of Eſte till the year 1597, when the pope and the duke agreed to divide the country between them. The pope accepted of Ferrara, and the family of Eſte, the duchies of Modena, Reggio, and Mirandola. This family is not only allowed by the beſt hiſtorians to be without controverſy one of the moſt ancient and illuſtrious in Italy, but alſo in Europe. It derives its deſcent from Azon, lord of Eſte, which is a ſmall but pleaſant town in Lombardy, not far from Padua, who flouriſhed in the tenth century. His deſcendants became very conſiderable princes, and ſo continued down to Alphonſo I. who was duke of Ferrara, Modena, and Reggio. Mary Beatrix Eleanora, daughter of Alphonſo IV. married James, duke of York, afterwards king of Great Britain, in 1673, by whom ſhe had iſſue James Francis Edward, born the 10th of June 1688, and Louiſa Maria Thereſa, born the 18th of June, 1692, who died the 18th of April, 1712, and ſeveral other children that died in their infancy. Francis Maria d'Eſte, the preſent duke of Modena, was married June 21, 1720, to Charlotte Aglae, daughter of Philip II. duke of Orleans. By adhering to the French and Spaniards againſt the Auſtrians, in the war that preceded the laſt, he was expelled his dominions, but reſtored by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle. He has been ſince appointed adminiſtrator for the government of the Milaneſe, during the minority of the archduke Peter Leopold, governor-general thereof. The proſpect with reſpect to this ducal houſe is much altered by the death of the cadet prince of Eſte. The hereditary prince, Hercules Renault d'Eſte, born the 22d of November, 1727, is the perſon upon whom the continuance of this illuſtrious family depends. So that conſidering the nature of fiefs in Italy, the fate of ſo conſiderable a ſucceſſion may excite much political confuſion.

Republic of Genoa.

THE territories of the republic of Genoa, lie in the creſcent, on the Mediterranean ſea, for one hundred and fifty

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fifty miles from the town of Ventimiglia on the weſt, almoſt to the territory of the republic of Lucca on the eaſt, and are called the Rivieras of Genoa, an Italian word, ſignifying *a ſtrand*; and, indeed, the country is little better, no where extending twenty miles from the ſea, and in ſome parts not ten. The Appennine mountains in a manner cover it on the land ſide, and ſeparate it from the countries of Milan, Piedmont, the Montferrat, the Milaneſe, and Parmeſan. The tops of theſe mountains are perfectly bare, having neither trees nor herbage upon them; but towards the bottom, they are well planted with vines, olives, and other fruit; but the ſoil yields ſcarce any corn, and the ſea not many fiſh. The capital of this republic, of the ſame name, it ſituate in 9 degrees 30 minutes eaſt longitude, and in 44 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, part of it on a level ſtrand near the ſea, but riſes gradually to the top of the hill. The harbour is large and deep, but expoſed to the ſouth-weſt wind, only there is a mole for the ſecurity of their gallies and ſmall veſſels, and the city lies pretty much expoſed to a bombardment; as they experienced in 1684, when Lewis XIV. ordered the town to be beat about their ears. There are here large quantities of ſilk manufactured, alſo velvets, tabbies, ſattins, ſilver and gold brocades, fine point, gloves, and ſweetmeats, which are in great requeſt, as well as their ſoap.

The trade in wrought ſilks which was carried on at Genoa, when all the ſilks made in the Milaneſe and Mantuan were formerly bought up here by commiſſion from England and Holland, is at preſent extremely decayed, both thoſe countries being grown wiſe enough to employ their own people in the ſilk manufacture. But there is another trade carried on here, in which the Genoeſe have ſo great a ſhare, and have managed ſo well, that it is thought they have gained more by it than they did by all the commerce of the Milaneſe: this is, their making moſt of the ſilks, which they bought before, in their own little dominion, and employing their own ſubjects; and as the trade they carry on in theſe goods to Liſbon and Cadiz is prodigiouſly increaſed, it is ſaid they flouriſh more in theſe branches of it, than they did before with all the reſt, not forgetting that they have ſtill a conſiderable commerce with Holland, and ſome with England. They have likewiſe a very conſiderable traffic in paper, large quantities of which are brought to England, beſides what they ſend to Portugal and Spain, as well for

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their trade to America reſpectively, as for their own conſumption.

This republic for near three centuries, rivalled Venice in the dominion of the Mediterranean, and the commerce to the Levant; but, after the memorable victory of Chiozza, the Venetians bore away the maritime empire; yet Genoa ſtill maintains no inconſiderable ſhare in the commerce of the Levant, and by its medium foreigners carry on the trade of Lombardy. What figure the Genoeſe fleets have formerly made, by means of their commerce, may be eaſily conceived, by the many victories they gained over the Saracens, Piſans, Venetians, Turks, and Spaniards; as well as from their many large conqueſts; ſuch as thoſe of the iſlands of Crete, Sardinia, Majorca, Minorca, Negropont, Leſbos, Malta, and their ſettlements in Scio, Smyrna, Achaia, Theodoſia, and other towns on the eaſtern confines of Europe; but, at preſent, their whole navy is reduced to a ſmall number of gallies, which ſerve only to fetch them ſome corn, wine, and other proviſions; inſomuch that when, in the late queen Anne's war, they had but ſix of theſe gallies in all, and had reſolved to build more, the French king ſent expreſly to forbid it, telling them, that he knew better than they how many they had occaſion for.

The great inducement to the traffic of Genoa is a kind of free, as well as a fine port; for, on the arrival of foreign ſhips, the merchandizes are depoſited in a grand free warehouſe, no duties of import or export being paid, except in proportion to the ſales that are made; and what remains unſold is re-imbarked without duty. The Genoeſe, Venetians, and Florentines, are ſaid to have been the firſt trading countries who fell into the way of negociating money by bills of exchange, and firſt diſcovered the profits and advantages to be occaſionally made thereby. It was they alſo that diſcovered the admirable art of accountantſhip by charge and diſcharge, according to the method of double entry.

Genoa, as part of the ancient Liguria, continued under the dominion of the Romans, till the ruin of that empire by the Goths, and other northern people; after which it made a part of the kingdom of Lombardy, and then of the German empire, and at length ſet up for a ſovereign ſtate. It was afterwards ſucceſſively ſubject to the archbiſhop of Milan, to the French, to the marquis of Montferrat, and the duke of Milan. Its preſent form of government it owes entirely to the virtue of Andrew Doria, who

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who, in 1527, rescued it out of the hands of the French, and refusing the sovereignty offered him, fixed its condition as a free state. Its constitution is of a mixed nature, but seems from experience to be but ill contrived, as having so much of an aristocracy as to make the people uneasy, and yet so much of a democracy as to keep up a continual ferment. The doge, or duke, is elected every two years, during which time he resides in the palace, is maintained at the public expence, has guards and other insignia of princely dignity, and twelve counsellors continually about him, styled the seignory, in whom the majesty of the republic resides; but the legislative power is vested in the great council, which consists of four hundred. However, the most considerable body in power in the republic, is that which is called St. George's Bank, constituted of such branches of the public revenue as have been set apart by the government for the payment of such sums as are borrowed during the exigencies of the commonwealth, and which have never been violated under the greatest troubles and perplexities of the state. The administration of this bank being for life, and partly in the hands of the citizens, gives this body a great authority in the state, and a powerful influence over the people. This bank is generally thought a great load to the state, and as a kind of inferior senate, which breaks the uniformity of their aristocratic government. The people, however, receive no small benefit from it, both as it is a check to their aristocracy, and distributes the power among more private members of the republic; and while the republic kept out of the broils of Europe, the bank maintained a circulation for the support of the public credit and their commerce. But this state having unhappily taken part in the war that broke our in 1744, they exhausted their public treasure, on which foundation the bank was constituted, and its credit received so violent a shock, as not easily to admit of a flourishing revival.

The revenues of the republic are very far from being considerable, nor is its trade near so great as it was; both, however, are still capable of being recovered. The private persons in the city of Genoa, of great families, are commonly rich, and have large estates, some in Naples and Sicily, others in Spain, and not a few in the Italian dominions belonging to the house of Austria; which is attended with great inconveniencies, as throwing them into interests inconsistent with, or directly opposite to those of their country. The island of Corsica, which belonged to

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this republic, we shall consider in our account of the European islands.

Republic of Venice.

WE must cross over the countries we have described to come from Genoa to Venice. This ancient republic may be divided into three parts: the dominions in Italy, called Terra Firma; those in Dalmatia, and those in the Ionian and Egean seas, called the Levant. The Terra Firma dominions are again subdivided into the following territories, viz. the Dagado of Venice, the Paduano, Vicentino, Veronese, Brefciano, Bergamasco, Friuli and Aquilogio, Istria, Cremasco, Polesin de Rovigo, Marcas Trevigiana. The coasts of Dalmatia contains the towns of Zara, Nona, Spalatro, Sebenico, Trau, Cliffa, and Cattara; and the isles of Charto, Otero, Vegtia or Vegia, Arbe, Pago, Isola, Longa, La Barga, Lessna, Curzola, and some few more of small note. In the Levant, the isles of Cephalonia, Corfu, Zant, La Praza, Millo, Cerigo, Tine, Kimolo or Argentaria, and the Morea.

The Venetians have little produce of the country, or manufacture of the people, except the silk, and the silken manufactures; the former respects the land part, the latter the city, where many of the silk manufactures are made; but yet the state is very opulent, as abounding with universal merchants; and this is owing to an universal correspondence, by which, as the Dutch are to these northern parts, so are the Venetians to all the shores of the Adriatic Gulf, the isles of the Arches, and the sea-coasts of the Turkish dominions; for to all these places they send their ships, freighted with the growth and manufactures of other countries, as of England, Holland, France, Spain, &c. in return for which they bring but few goods, except from Turkey, whence they import large quantities of silk, which they sell again, among their own manufacturers in the city, as also in their Terra Firma dominions, and likewise to the duchies of Milan and Mantua, and all the countries between the gulf and the river Danube, through all which the Venetians have a great and flourishing commerce, partly by the help of canals, and partly by small navigable rivers. The trade which may be called their own, and which is more considerable, is by the navigation of those great rivers the Po, the Adige, the Adde, the Mincio, and

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others, by which they carry all the heavy goods they import from foreign parts into the rich and populous provinces of Lombardy, and have a communication even with Turin. By these rivers also they have a correspondence with the country of Trent and Tirol, and even with Bavaria itself; and by the lower branches of the Po, and the canal of Ferrara, with all the southern provinces of the papal dominions, as Ferrara, Bologna, Urbino, and Parma, and as far into the country westward as Modena.

As they have the sole commerce of most of these countries, and in such a manner as not to be interrupted by any rival nations, it is not to be wondered that the Venetians have a very thriving and gainful trade, and that they can advantageously disperse the large importations they make from almost all parts of Europe, as from Spain, Portugal, England, and Holland. Nor do they bring any valuable returns back from the inland countries, for they have few productions in those provinces, except corn; neither have they metals or materials, iron excepted; nor wool, cotton, or hair, or any considerable manufacture for employing their people: so that the Venetians are said to drive the most ready money trade of any of the Mediterranean countries, because they export such great quantities of goods to countries which have no returns to make them but money. However, they receive large quantities of other merchandize from the Turkish dominions, and more perhaps than any one nation besides.

We must not forget that there is a trade almost peculiar to the Venetians, which consists in naval stores; for the provinces of the Vicentino, the Trevigiana, and part of Friuli, are full of firs, and those so well grown and large, that they cut masts there even for their biggest ships of war; they have likewise good oak for building. In consequence of their fir woods, they have pitch and tar; and the same countries produce great quantities of hemp and flax; so that they have deals, timber, masts, sails, hemp, flax, pitch, and tar, all of their own, which none of the princes or states in the Mediterranean can boast of in the same manner. Nor is this solely beneficial to them in regard to their own navy, and to fill their own magazines, but they furnish all those materials, in great quantities, to the other ports of Italy, as Genoa, Naples, Messina, and Palermo, or to any other places where they build ships especially those of force; and the knights of Malta fetch most of their naval stores from hence. Were

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the countries this way furnished for trade, and with wealth sufficient to carry it on, they would send hither for ships, and Venice would be the arsenal of the Mediterranean, as Holland has been of other parts of Europe.

On the large coast of the other side of the Adriatic Gulph, called Dalmatia, they have some good ports, though no city of any considerable commerce; neither does the country produce any thing extraordinary for merchandize; it supplies the city of Venice with corn and mutton, in great quantities; and, in return, the Venetians supply the people with their foreign merchandize. Yet the Venetians want many things which their own territories cannot supply them with, and which, since the Turks have possessed themselves of so much of their dominions, they are obliged to purchase from them, and from the Greeks under the Turkish government; and these are as well necessaries as merchandize. They carry the Greeks proper manufactures, such as wrought silks, fine linen, bone-lace, and all sorts of haberdashery for the women, who love to go fine, especially in the isles. What they carry back in return is difficult to enquire, but is from all parts according to the production of the place, such as currants, raisins, figs, drugs, rice, corn, oil, wine, cotton, silk, &c. and this is the reason why Venice is the magazine for the scarcest drugs, and from whence they are sent over the whole Christian world. As for money, they take little in the islands, the balance in that respect being rather against them.

It may be observed here, that the cities of Venice and of Rome are, of all the cities of Europe, for their bigness, the most noted for pomp and shew, the confluence of strangers to both being scarce conceivable. At Venice, the diversions of the carnival, the magnificence of the buildings, among which are four hundred nobleman's palaces, with the splendid appearance of ladies richly attired, cause a prodigious trade in things otherwise of no great moment, as equipages, coaches, gondaloes, liveries, habits of ceremony, furniture, paintings, and other extraordinaries of that kind. Hence there are more taylors, upholsterers, gold and silver lace-makers, embroiderers, and, to sum up all, footmen and pages, with fidlers and strumpets, than in any other city in the world, Paris and London excepted. At Venice also the numerous throng of gentry, and persons of the first quality, to the carnival is such, that they frequently number twenty or thirty sovereign princes there at a time, besides others of lower rank,

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rank, without number. Thus, nothing may be ſaid to conduce more to the promoting of commerce than the gay and ſumptuous dreſs of the people, eſpecially where the humour once becomes national, as it is at Venice and Rome.

The iſlands on which the city of Venice ſtands, were formerly ſubject to Padua, when the Goths and other northern nations invaded Italy in the fifth century. The inhabitants of Padua, Aquileia, and other cities on the continent, fled to theſe iſlands for ſhelter, and formed a republic. They elected a duke, or doge, veſting him with abſolute power; but within a few years the principal citizens abridged his power to that degree, that they left him only the name of ſovereign, veſting the ſupreme authority in the principal families, and their male iſſue, who are now ſtyled noble Venetians, and amount to about one thouſand five hundred; but do not ſuffer the nobility in their territories on the continent to have any ſhare in the government. The ſignory conſiſts of the duke and ſix other members, choſen by the grand council of the nobility, and of the three chief judges of the principal courts of judicature; theſe are called the council of ten, in whom the executive power ſeems to be lodged; and this council elect three of their own number every three months, who are a kind of ſtate inquiſitors, or ſecret committee, receiving all accuſations and informations againſt perſons ſuſpected of conſpiring againſt the government; and may impriſon, and proceed capitally againſt them without calling them to make a defence, if they all agree; otherwiſe the matter is brought before the council of ten. They have boards or councils alſo for raiſing and collecting the public revenues, and every other branch of buſineſs.

The Venetians no ſooner became powerful at ſea, but they extended their conqueſts on every part of the Terra Firma in their neighbourhood, and afterwards to the moſt diſtant coaſts and iſlands on the Mediterranean and Euxine ſeas. They reduced Dalmatia, and the iſlands on that coaſt, under their dominion about the year 978. They took from the eaſtern emperors the iſlands of Rhodes, Scio, Samos, Mytilene, and Andros, in the year 1117; and in confederacy with the French, they even took the city of Conſtantinople in 1194, and remained in poſſeſſion of part of that empire for ſome time. They reduced Candia and the reſt of the Ionian and Ægean ſeas, as well as the Morea, and the city of Gallipoli on the Helleſpont; and at length made a conqueſt of their mother

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city of Padua, and many other great cities on that ſide, extending their dominions upwards of one hundred miles in the north of Italy. They diſputed the dominion of Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, and Dalmatia, with the king of Hungary; and contended with the Geoneſe for the empire of the ſea with various ſucceſs; but the Turks breaking into Europe, took from them Theſſalonica in 1453, and demoliſhed the wall on the iſthmus of Corinth, which defended the Morea. The pope, France, and Spain joining in a confederacy againſt the Venetians, took from them their dominions on the continent in 1509; but the pope and Spain changing hands, they again recovered their territories on the continent. Their greateſt loſs was that of the India trade, which was ruined by the Portugueſe diſcovering a paſſage to India round the Cape of Good Hope. Before this diſcovery, the Venetians purchaſed the merchandize of the Eaſt at Alexandria and the ports of Turkey in the Levant, and diſperſed them all over Europe. The Turks took Cyprus, Candia, and all the iſlands in the Archipelago from them; and at length they loſt the Morea, in 1715. They are ſtill, however, the greateſt naval power in Italy, and have ſeldom leſs than twenty thouſand men in their pay in the time of peace, moſt of them foreigners, both officers and ſoldiers. The entire revenue of the republic is computed at about eight millions of ducats, but the annual expence does not commonly extend to half that ſum. Before the fatal war of Candia they had in their treaſury fifty millions of ducats in ready money, excluſive of the famous gold chain, to which they annually added ſome links, which forty porters could hardly carry, and which on certain feſtivals was extended croſs the ſquare of St. Mark, for the entertainment of the people.

The doge annually, every Aſcenſion-day, formally eſpouſes the ſea, or gulf of Venice, by throwing a ring into it; being attended by three or four hundred of the nobility in their gallies, with a great number of barges and gondaloes richly adorned.

It is highly to the honour of this ſtate, that for upwards of twelve centuries ſhe has preſerved her freedom, and for a great part of that time has lived under the ſame government, without ſuffering any of thoſe dreadful revolutions by which many of her powerful neighbours have been involved in blood and confuſion. This has juſtly given a high reputation to the wiſdom of her ſenators, who, by their great policy and wonderful ſecrecy, have been

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been able, through so long a space of time, to guard with equal diligence and success against foreign confederacies, many of which they have defeated, when laid with the deepest cunning, and supported with no inconsiderable strength. Her very loffes are so far from reflecting discredit on the republic, that on the contrary they do her the greatest honour in the sentiments of those who are capable of forming a right judgment of history, and know how to distinguish properly in respect to causes and events. The common opinion that she continues to decline, and that the very being of the republic is in danger from a slow consuption, has been perhaps taken up without a due attention, and for want of having just notions of the wise and solid maxims by which her government is conducted; for though it be true, that she is in no condition to maintain such a war as that of Candia, yet it is no less true, that as things are now circumstanced, she has very little reason to fear it, especially being now better secured against the Turks by her perpetual alliance with the house of Austria. Since the peace of Passarowitz, which was concluded on the 10th of July, 1718, the Venetians have remained very quiet, and have very wisely avoided taking any share in those disputes that have since perplexed Europe; being mindful of their great and favourite maxim, to manage the government with the utmost frugality, encourage trade as much as possible, and to preserve peace as long as they are able.

Grand Duchy of Tuscany.

The grand duchy of Tuscany is composed of the territories that formerly belonged to the three small but potent republics of Florence, Sienna, and Pisa. The bounds that are generally ascribed to it are the river Tiber, the Appennine mountains, and the river Magra. The whole extent of this country from south to north, is about one hundred and thirty miles, and about one hundred and twenty from east to west. It is washed on the south and on the west by the Mediterranean, and with respect to strength and convenience, has all the advantages from situation that can be wished. As to the soil of this country, it is in some parts mountainous, where there are mines of copper, iron, silver, and alum, and quarries of fine marble, alabaster, and porphyry. In other parts it abounds with pleasant hills, which are covered with vines, oranges, lemons, olives,

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olives, and other fruits, and in some places there are vallies which produce abundance of corn and grass. It has many little rivers, but the chief of them is the Arno. The other commodities besides those already mentioned, are wool, flax, saffron, serges, woollen cloths, silks, tapestries, gilt leather, earthen ware, perfumes, &c. There is no country in the world where the people are, generally speaking, better adapted to mercantile affairs, or where they know better how to make this disposition of theirs turn to account. The country round about Florence is excellently cultivated, and the city itself, so rich and beautiful, that it is styled, at home and abroad, Florence the Fair, according to the Italian humour of bestowing epithets upon all their great cities. The other two parts of the grand duke's dominions, the Pisan and the Siennois, though the country is not inferior to the Florentine, are far from being so well peopled, and consequently from being so much improved. On the contrary, in some places they lie almost waste for want of inhabitants, which has been owing chiefly to the jealousy of their princes. As this humour is now pretty well worn out, there is good reason to hope that these countries may recover, at least, to a tolerable degree, though not to their ancient splendor in the times when Pisa and Sienna were republics, and either of them very capable of making head against Florence. This shews the different effects of government, and that places may derive from liberty almost as great blessings as from nature.

Tuscany, known anciently by the names of Ombria, Tyrrhenia, and Hetruria, fell under the dominion of the Romans, about four hundred and fifty-five years before Christ. The Ostrogoths possessed it in the fifth century, and then the Lombards, who were expelled by Charlemagne, in the year 800; after which it became subject to the German emperors, who appointed the governor, till the pope encouraged these governors to render themselves independent, and accept of his protection against the emperor. There were two potent factions in Tuscany at this time, 1240, which divided the whole empire, and occasioned a very long civil war both in Italy and Germany; these factions went by the names of the Guelphs and Ghibellines; the first appearing in the interest of the pope, and the other in that of the emperor. During these contentions, the cities of Florence, Pisa, Sienna, and several others, withdrew themselves from the dominion of both, and erected such governments as they saw fit. It

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was about the middle of the fifteenth century that Cosmo de Medicis, who had the glorious surname of the Father of his Country, assumed the supreme power. Alexander de Medicis, his descendant, was made duke of Florence by the emperor Charles V. in 1531. He was succeeded by his cousin Cosmo, who had the title of grand-duke bestowed upon him by pope Pius V. in order to raise him to a rank superior to the princes of Italy, though he had the style only of serene highness, whereas that of royal highness was given to the duke of Savoy. About the beginning of the present century, the grand-duke Cosmo III. finding the title of royal highness given by the emperor Leopold to the duke of Lorrain, applied himself likewise to his imperial majesty in order to obtain the same favour, which was accordingly granted. This prince, after a long and happy reign, deceased October 31, 1723, and was succeeded in his dominions by his son John Gaston de Medicis, the last heir male of his family. The infant don Carlos, at present king of Spain, was declared his heir; and soon after his arrival in Italy assumed, with the consent of the grand duke, the title of hereditary grand-prince of Tuscany. But upon the conclusion of that war, by which he acquired the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, it was stipulated by the treaty of Vienna, that the grand-duchy of Tuscany should be given to Francis, duke of Lorrain, in exchange for that duchy, which was to be yielded to his most Christian majesty after the demise of king Stanislaus of Poland, who was to be possessed of it during his life.

All the princes of the house of Medicis were merchants, and by their example commerce was always thought in Tuscany what it ought to be thought elsewhere, a thing not at all incompatible with the nobility. They were always remarkable for their prudent œconomy, which rendered them without comparison the richest princes in Italy; they were great patrons of industry and arts, very attentive to what might promote the welfare of their subjects, and omitted nothing that might engage strangers of merit to settle amongst them.

But the great glory of Tuscany, and the true source of her power and wealth, at least in modern times, has been her famous port of Leghorn, or, as the Italians call it, Livorno, obtained in exchange for Sarzana from the Genoese. The country about it was formerly a vile morass, or rather quagmire, the noxious steams of which rendered the air unwholesome; but by the skill and pains of an Englishman

Engliſhman, ſir Robert Dudley, ſon to queen Elizabeth's potent favourite, the earl of Leiceſter, and himſelf created duke of Northumberland, the ſoil was rendered habitable, the air much leſs unwholſome, and the port improved ſo, as to become the beſt in Italy. By his advice alſo it was made a free port, that is, the duties inward are very eaſy, and there are none upon exportation. This has rendered it for about a century paſt the great magazine of the Levant trade, and drawn thither merchants from all parts, more eſpecially Jews and Armenians, of whom many reſide there, and have great privileges allowed them. But after all, the greateſt part of the commerce was and is carried on by the ſubjects of the maritime powers, who for that reaſon have their conſuls reſident there, and intereſt themſelves upon all occaſions in its favour. On this account care has been taken to ſtipulate in all the treaties ſince the quadruple alliance, that the port of Leghorn ſhould remain in its preſent ſituation, in whoſe hands ſoever it was left; which, however, to ſome may appear almoſt a needleſs precaution, ſince it is of ſuch very high importance to the ſovereign of Tuſcany that it ſhould ſo remain. It is, in truth, the great wheel which gives motion to the trade of that country, and attracts thither the richeſt commodities and the moſt valuable manufactures of Italy, from whence great advantages ariſe, not only to the ſubjects of the grand-duke, but alſo to the prince himſelf; whence one would be tempted to ſuppoſe, that reſpect to his own intereſts might ſuperſede the neceſſity of any ſuch interpoſition; beſides, the friendſhip of the maritime powers is a thing of ſo great conſequence to whatever prince is in poſſeſſion of Tuſcany, that the bare conſideration of that ſeems to be a motive more than ſufficient to ſecure all the immunities granted to the port of Leghorn from the ſmalleſt violation. However in matters of ſo tender a nature nothing ought to be neglected; and therefore we have the greater reaſon to perſuade ourſelves, that a thing ſo perfectly agreeable to the intereſts of all parties will never become the ſubject of any kind of diſpute.

It was never thought an extravagant computation, when the revenues of this grand-duchy were eſtimated at between three and four millions of crowns yearly; one half of which, at leaſt in times of peace, remained ſafe in the coffers of the grand-duke; or if it found its way out, was employed in trade, or lent to his ſubjects at a good intereſt. Whether the ſavings are altogether as great now as in for-

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mer times, may poſſibly admit of ſome doubt; but there is none with regard to the income, which is as great as ever. The grand-duke had alſo commonly thirty thouſand men in pay, or rather inrolled; but as they are ſeldom called out to ſervice, ſome have ſuſpected, that inſtead of coſting him any thing, his troops might probably contribute to the increaſe of his revenue. In the ſituation that things are now, there is a ſmall regular force maintained by the grand-duke; and for the ſea ſervice, againſt the inſults of the Barbary corſairs, four men of war, which have been not long ſince built by him, and kept ſtationed on the coaſt of Tuſcany.

Republic of Lucca.

THE republic of Lucca followed the fortune of the neighbouring cities in Tuſcany, till they purchaſed their independency of the emperor Rodolph for ten thouſand crowns, in 1279, ſince which time they have continued a free ſtate. The circumference of this republic does not exceed thirty Italian miles, yet the fertility of the ſoil, and clemency of the government have proved ſuch prevalent motives to ſettling here, that the inhabitants of the city, together with thoſe of the hundred and fifty villages, of which the republic conſiſts, are ſaid to amount to one hundred and twenty thouſand, thirty thouſand of which are capable of bearing arms. The territories of the grand-duke entirely encompaſs thoſe of Lucca; ſo that a foreign force only can prevent this republic from falling under the yoke of the grand-duke of Tuſcany; nor have thoſe princes failed often to ſhew their deſire of uniting this delightful ſpot with their own dominions, and reducing Lucca to the ſame circumſtances with Florence, Sienna, and Piſa. The ſituation of Lucca being ſuch, an univerſal harmony among the members of that republic is abſolutely neceſſary, if they are deſirous of tranſmitting to their poſterity the bleſſings of liberty, their darling idol, with whoſe image they decorate their coins, their city-gates, and public buildings. The republic is governed by a council of ſtate, and a great council: the former is compoſed of the gonfalonier, or doge, and nine ſenators, who are all members of the latter, or great council. Theſe ſenators are termed anziani, or *elders*, have the title of Excellentiſſimi, and, during their office, which continues only two months, have apartments in the palace of the republic, and are maintained at the public expence. A doge cannot

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not be re-elected till ſeven years after the expiration of his office. The great council conſiſts of one hundred and thirty nobles and ten burghers, who enjoy their office two years. A corps of ſeventy-ſix Switzers form the doge's guard; the other forces belonging to the republic amount to about five hundred men, and its annual revenue to about four hundred thouſand ſcudi, or eighty thouſand pounds ſterling.

The city of Lucca is about three Italian miles in circumference, and is defended by eleven baſtions, on which two hundred and eighty pieces of cannon are mounted. Several rows of trees are planted round the walls, which render the walks on them very pleaſant. The city is ſituated in the middle of a delightful plain, which is every where terminated by a chain of mountains; and from the diligence of its inhabitants in their ſilk and other manufactures, has acquired the honourable epithet of Induſtrioſa, *the Induſtrious.* They extract from a ſmall, but excellent ſort of olives, the fineſt oil of any in Italy; and from this commodity the republic derives conſiderable advantages. It would be unjuſt not to commend the inhabitants, of whom there are near four thouſand in the city, for their juſtice, candour, and polite behaviour. Their police is very attentive in ſuppreſſing luxury and ſuperfluous expences, too often the deſtruction of uſeful families.

Dominions of the Pope.

THE dominions of the pope, compoſing what the Italians call Stato della Chieſa, or *the States of the Holy See,* are bounded on the north by the territories of the ſtate of Venice and the Adriatic Sea; on the eaſt by the kingdom of Naples; on the ſouth by the Mediterranean; and on the weſt by the dominions of the great-duke and the duchies of Modena, Mirandola, and Mantua. The greateſt length of this country, computed from Francolino, in the duchy of Ferrara, to Terracina, in Campagna di Roma, which is a line from the north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, may be about two hundred and forty Italian miles; as to the breadth, from Civita Vecchia, in the Patrimony of St. Peter, to Ancona, is about one hundred and thirty miles; but in many other places it is not near ſo broad.

The ſituation of the papal dominions, thus lying in the very middle of Italy, and going quite acroſs from the gulf of Venice to the Mediterranean, is an advantage that

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that (except the king of the Two Sicilies) no other prince in that country enjoys but the pope himſelf. We will ſpeak of the ſeveral territories of which theſe dominions are compoſed, in their natural order, beginning with the country that lies fartheſt to the north-weſt, which is the duchy of Ferrara. This, which was formerly one of the fineſt principalities in Italy, lies ſtretched upon the gulf of Venice, the river Po running through it, and falling there into the ſea. The climate was formerly good, and the ſoil fruitful, producing corn, flax, hemp, and other valuable commodities, which made the duke rich and the people happy; but now things are quite altered, for the country lying low, and being thinly inhabited, the inundations of the Po have rendered a great part of it a moraſs; and Ferrara, from being one of the fineſt in Italy, now ſcarce deſerves the name of a city. The town and county of Comachio is no better than a fiſhing-village, ſurrounded by unwholſome marſhes. The Bologneſe is ſtill a very fine country, and retains ſomething of its ancient freedom; the capital is ſtyled Bologna, or Bononia the Fat, from the fertility of its territory in corn, wine, and flax. Fort Urban, which ſtands ten miles from Bologna, is a fortreſs built to cover the pope's frontier on this ſide. The Bologneſe is an inland country, but as it lies between Tuſcany and the duchy of Mantua, the road through it creates ſome little trade. The country of Romagna is next, lying upon the gulf of Venice, and very pleaſant and fruitful, being watered by ſeveral fine rivers, and enriched by its ſalt mines; the capital is Ravenna the Old, as the Italians call it, and, indeed, its appearance ſpeaks it ſo, for it is now fallen very much to decay. The duchy of Urbino lies alſo upon the Venetian gulf, and though it was formerly reckoned a fine country when under princes of its own, there is nothing more certain than that the air is very unwholſome, and the ſoil extremely barren; the beſt place now is Peſaro, on the coaſt of the Adriatic, from whence it enjoys ſome trade, and is tolerably well built. The marquiſate of Ancona lies on the ſame gulf; the city from whence it receives its name, was formerly famous for its port, now in a very low and poor condition; but Loretto, which ſtands about ten miles from it, is famous for its riches, acquired by the concourſe of pilgrims to the Santa Caſa. The territory of Citta de Caſtella is ſmall, and derives its name from that place, which ſtands on the river Tiber, and is pleaſant and well built. The Perugiano lies next, and abounds with excellent wine and very

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very good corn. The capital is Perusa, enriched by its famous lake well stored with excellent fish. The Orvietano lies next, so called from its capital Orvieto, a small but beautiful country, rich in corn and wine, and enjoying the best air in the pope's dominions. Adjoining to this province lies the duchy of Castro, belonging formerly to the dukes of Parma and Placentia, but rejoined to the Holy See, partly by usury, and partly by violence; the pope's possession was quieted by a treaty with the emperor Charles VI. in 1724; but it is possible the old title to it derived from the dukes of Parma, on a favourable occasion may yet be revived. The Patrimony of St. Peter lies on the Mediterranean, and is fruitful in corn and wine, and famous also for its alum mines; the capital of it is Viterbo, anciently a fine place, now little better than a heap of ruins. Porto, formerly, as its name signifies, a noble haven, is now capable only of receiving barks; but Civita Vecchia has still a fine port, and would be a very considerable place, if the unwholesomeness of its air did not render it thinly peopled, and the lazines of those people who dwell in it did not contribute to the unwholesomeness of the air, by leaving their country uncultivated. Umbria, or the duchy of Spoleto, is a country well watered, and much diversified in its appearance, in some parts mountainous, in others marshy, but intermixed with plains fruitful in corn, wine, oil, and fruits; the capital is Spoleto, and there are some other good towns in this country, which is owing to a little trade stirring there. The province of Sabina, which takes its name from the Sabines, is small, but very fruitful and pleasant. The country about Rome, called Campagna di Roma, would be wholsome and fruitful if well cultivated; but at present it is neither, especially in some seasons of the year, when the capital becomes a kind of desert, being alike abandoned by strangers and its best inhabitants, for the sake of enjoying a purer climate. A project is said to be now on foot for draining the Pontine marshes, which will be a means of preventing their noxious effluvia, and withal acquire a considerable tract of land for the purposes of agriculture.

Besides these, the pope has other dominions, as well in Italy as elsewhere. The kingdom of Naples is held from him by an annual tribute. The duchies of Parma and Placentia were part of the patrimony of the church; but by the famous quadruple alliance, they are declared to be fiefs of the empire, and are like to be considered in

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that light for the future. The principality of Maſſeran, belonging formerly to the family of Fieſque, and at preſent to the king of Sardinia, is held in like manner from the pope. Other dominions he has in poſſeſſion, which are held from other princes, ſuch as the territory of Benevento, in the kingdom of Naples, the archbiſhop of which is the ſecond eccleſiaſtical dignity in that kingdom; and the county of Avignon in the ſouth of France, in which, while they were deprived of Rome, the popes themſelves reſided, who ſtill govern it by a vice-legate; and this, in every reſpect, is a very conſiderable acquiſition, of which the pope's are particularly tender, and which is the only part of their poſſeſſions obtained in the way of a fair purchaſe.

Having thus fairly and clearly ſtated the juſt extent of the pope's dominions, we might think, that after the two crowned heads, he is the moſt conſiderable power in Italy; and yet, though his government is truly deſpotic, and his ſubjects the hardeſt uſed of any in Italy, his revenue is below that of any other prince; for it has never been computed at above two millions of Roman crowns; whereas Tuſcany, that has not half the extent of territory, produces twice as much to the grand-duke. His regular troops are now only fit for ſhew, hardly any of his fortreſſes in a ſtate of defence; and though we ſometimes hear of the pope's gallies, his naval power is very inconſiderable. We muſt, however, in juſtice to ſome of the laſt popes, allow, that they have endeavoured to correct the errors of their predeceſſors, and that their ſubjects have lived much eaſier under them; but then theſe amendments have extended no farther than to keep things from growing worſe, and much more muſt be done before they can be expected to grow better.

Hitherto we have conſidered only the ſtate of the temporal monarchy of the pope, but if we take a view of his ſpiritual monarchy, we ſhall find, that though, like ſome of the leaning towers, which have made ſo much noiſe in Italy, it ſeems, ſince the Reformation to carry evident marks of weakneſs; yet, in fact, it is ſtill a ſtructure very ſtrong in itſelf, contrived with great ſkill, and ſupported with much art. If in other monarchies princes have pretended to a divine right, the pope goes ſtill farther, and claims a kind of divine power, by which he is raiſed as much above other princes, as thoſe princes are above their people. This claim, together with the title of Holineſs, having the recommendation of a long preſcription,

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cannot but excite a high veneration in the minds of ſuch as believe it. The papal character being given with the greateſt ceremony by thoſe who are preſumed to be the beſt judges of religion and religious intereſts, ſeems, in the opinion of the multitude, to alter the very name of him who is adorned therewith, and to transform him from a man of like paſſions with themſelves into a ſacred perſon. It is true, that in Proteſtant countries, as nothing of this is believed, ſo it is very hard to be underſtood. Yet the fact is beyond diſpute, and whatever wiſer perſons in popiſh kingdoms may conceive, the bulk of the people have the higheſt reverence for the holy father.

The cloſe connection between the clergy in all popiſh countries and the court of Rome, joined to the occaſional benefits that monarchs themſelves may receive by bulls from the holy ſee, makes them unwilling to interpoſe, or break off that commerce which their ſubjects have with Rome, that upon certain occaſions they may derive favours from thence, which may eaſily procure what otherwiſe might with difficulty be forced by their own authority. We may add to this another reaſon, which is, that the popiſh princes cheriſh the ſpiritual power of the pope, as the means of preſerving unity in religion, and thereby preventing religious diſputes, which very ſeldom diſturb the church without diſturbing the ſtate alſo. Thus it appears, that, independent of enthuſiaſm and ſuperſtition, political principles have no ſmall ſhare in promoting that adherence to the ſee of Rome, which, at firſt ſight, ſeems ſo irreconcilable to the abſolute authority of ſovereign princes, and which, notwithſtanding by their dextrous management, is often made to co-operate therewith.

In theſe points of view, one may with great truth and impartiality venture to aſſert, that the whole ſcheme of the Romiſh religion is admirably well adjuſted to maintain, in every reſpect, the power of the ſupreme head. He is reputed by many doctors of the church of Rome infallible, that his deciſions may have the greater weight; the traditions of the church, which with the members of it paſs for a rule of faith, are ſubject to his controul; all religious doctrines are liable to his cenſure; the power of abſolution, even in the higheſt caſes, is attributed to him; he diſpenſes the ſpiritual treaſures of the church, ſuch as pardons and indulgences; he grants diſpenſations of all kinds;

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kinds; he regulates faſts and feaſts at his pleaſure: in a word, being reputed the ſucceſſor of St. Peter, and the viſible head of the Chriſtian church, he has prerogatives without bounds, and without number; ſo that it is not in the leaſt ſurpriſing, that ſo much power, directed by the great policy of its ſpiritual forces, ſhould be able to perform ſuch mighty things, and to preſerve itſelf for ſo many ages. Theſe ſpiritual forces are the ſeveral ranks and orders of men, ſubject in an eſpecial manner to the holy ſee. In the firſt claſs of theſe ſtand the cardinals, who are acknowleged princes of the church, and pretend to be next in dignity to crowned heads. They were originally no more than the pariſh-prieſts of Rome, and their number ſometimes greater, ſometimes leſs; but now fixed to ſeventy-two, in alluſion to Chriſt's diſciples. Heretofore a cardinal was content to be ſtyled his Excellency; but now they aſſume the title of Eminence, which was formerly given to princes, and thereupon the latter took the title of Highneſs. The cardinals are of all nations, that the influence ariſing from the hopes of this dignity may be the more extenſive. The nomination to hats by crowned heads is a new ſtroke of Roman policy, which heightens the dependence upon the holy ſee, while it ſeems to leſſen the papal authority. The majority, however, are always Italians, to prevent the throne from being filled by a ſtranger; and it is provided, that in all elections the perſon choſen ſhall have the voices of two thirds of thoſe who enter the conclave, that there may never be a ſtrong faction againſt the pope among the cardinals, which might be attended with ill conſequences. All the ſubordinate dignities of the church may be conſidered as the nobility in the pope's ſpiritual empire: but in all others, ſo in this, the ſtrength of the monarchy conſiſts in the number of its ſubjects, and if we take into our view the ſecular and regular clergy in the church of Rome, the former bound by the moſt ſacred ties, and the latter not by vows only, but by their intereſts, to the obedience of the holy ſee, we cannot but entertain a high idea of its power, ſince not long ago it was the calculation of a certain ſovereign pontiff, that in Europe he had three hundred thouſand pariſhes, and fifty thouſand convents ſubject to his juriſdiction. The conſtant reſort of all theſe to Rome upon different occaſions, muſt carry thither annually an immenſe treaſure.

Rome, the capital of the pope's dominions and of Italy, ſtands on the river Tiber, about ſixteen miles

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north-eaſt of the Tuſcan-Sea. The walls are about twelve miles in circumference, as they were in the time of the Romans; but not a third part of the ground within the walls is now built upon; the reſt is taken up with vineyards and gardens; and the inhabitants are computed to amount to one hundred and twenty thouſand ſouls. There are five bridges over the river, twenty gates, and three hundred antique towers ſtill remaining. The caſtle of St. Angelo is a modern fortification, but of no great ſtrength, and ſerves rather to keep the inhabitants in awe, than to defend them againſt foreign enemies. Modern Rome ſtands fourteen or fifteen feet higher than the old city, being built on the ruins of the former, and is much more upon a level than the old city was, great part of the hills being waſhed down into the vallies, inſomuch, that the Tarpeian rock, which was once a terrible precipice from whence malefactors were thrown, is not now more than twenty feet high. The city is generally magnificently built; the ſtreets ſpacious, and adorned with three hundred fine churches, and a vaſt number of palaces and convents; and the triumphal arches, pillars, obeliſks, ſtatues, and fountains, are no ſmall addition to its beauty; but then there are other ſtreets as meanly built as in any town whatever. The greateſt curioſities in Rome are the ancient theatres and amphitheatres, Pagan temples, triumphal arches, baths, aqueducts, fountains, catacombs, obeliſks, cirques, ſepulchres, bridges, churches, palaces, ſtatues, paintings, piazzas, colleges, and hoſpitals. It is ſaid that the people of this city are more obliging than in any town of Europe, and that an univerſal civility reigns here. They are not in the leaſt poſſeſſed with a ſpirit of bigotry or perſecution againſt ſtrangers of any country or religion whatever. The city is extremely well ſupplied with water by their noble aqueducts and fountains, and there is great plenty of all manner of proviſions, as corn, fleſh, fiſh, fowl, and fruits; and the greateſt variety of wines that are to be met with any where: in the midſt of all this variety, the people are extremely ſober; never ſitting down purely to drink, and very ſeldom drinking wine without water.

Kingdom of Naples.

NAPLES is by far the largeſt ſtate in Italy. It is bounded on the north-ſide by the Adriatic Sea, on the ſouth by the Tuſcan, on the weſt by the eccleſiaſtical ſtate,

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ſtate, and on the eaſt by the mouth of the Adriatic and the Mediterranean. The air and ſoil are extremely delightful and excellent in moſt places; and the country in general is very rich, fertile, and well watered, with rivers and ſprings, which flow through it from both ſides of the Appennines: theſe rivers are, indeed, commonly ſo rapid, that they may be rather called torrents. The land produces excellent wines, eſpecially that emphatically called Lachrymæ Chriſti. They have, in ſeveral parts, plenty of corn, but not ſufficient for the conſumption of the country, and the harveſt in Sicily failing in 1763, occaſioned the year following, a plague and a famine in Naples. They have likewiſe oil, rice, and pretty good paſture; and the Neapolitan horſes are in no ſmall requeſt. Their almonds, olives, figs, citrons, oranges, pomegranates, grapes, and other fruits, are very good and in great plenty; and ſo are their flax, hemp, pulſe, aniſe, coriander, and other ſeeds. The air is, indeed, in ſome places exceſſively hot, eſpecially on the ſouth ſide of the Appennines, where the mountains reflect the ſun's heat with ſuch vehemence, that it is hardly to be borne in the three or four hot months of the year; but the north ſide of them is quite temperate, healthy, and delightful. They are ſometimes annoyed with the locuſt.

The far greater part of the provinces into which this kingdom is divided, have advantages peculiar to themſelves. For inſtance, the air of the Hither Principality is ſo ſerene and healthy, that people live in it to a prodigious age; and the Farther Principality abounds in cattle more than any other, and all its fruits are excellent. The Baſilicate is famed for its fine ſaffron, honey, and wax; Calabria for its plenty of good manna; the Hither for corn, wines, and mulberries, and the Farther for its fine honey and beautiful horſes. Otranto is ſaid to produce as much oil as would ſupply all Italy. Moliſe abounds with ſuch a quantity of veniſon, that it ſells cheaper there than beef or mutton. The territories of Lavoro, Campania, and ſome others, are bleſſed with ſo rich a ſoil, and excellent a temperature, that they produce the ſame flowers twice a year. The Abruzzo, eſpecially the Hither, beſides being the cooleſt part of the kingdom, produces great quantity of corn, wines, oil, and ſaffron. The other three provinces not only come ſhort of all thoſe conveniences mentioned in the reſt, but have, moreover, ſome grievous diſadvantages peculiar to them; as, in the Capatinate, the ſoil is dry, ſandy, and in many places

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barren, and the climate unhealthy. In Apulia, the heat is ſo exceſſive, and the people and cattle plagued with ſuch ſwarms of venomous flies, that it is ſcarce habitable. In the province of Bari the air is pretty temperate; but the people are generally infeſted with ſcorpions, vipers, and ſerpents, eſpecially the tarantula, which renders their territory as uncomfortable as that of Apulia.

The capital of the ſame name with the kingdom, is ſituated one hundred and forty miles ſouth-eaſt of Rome. It is ſeven miles in circumference within the walls, and as much more if the ſuburbs are included, and contains about three hundred thouſand inhabitants. It ſtands on an eminence, riſing gradually from the ſea to a moderate height, on a fine bay of the ſea of thirty miles diameter; and the iſlands which lie before it form a ſecure and commodious harbour. On the eaſt is a large plain, on the farther ſide of which is mount Veſuvius, and on the weſt a large hill, on which ſtands the caſtle of St. Elmo, and a Carthuſian monaſtery, from whence there is the fineſt proſpect in the world. Here it is ſeldom cold in winter; and in ſummer the cool breezes from the mountains and the ſea make the hotteſt part of it tolerable; nor is the ſea ſubject to ſtorms, and the ſhore is ſo bold, that large ſhips may lie cloſe to the quays. The buildings are magnificent and elegant, and inhabited by people of diſtinction; nor can there be in all reſpects a more deſirable ſituation, did not the eruptions of Veſuvius, and earthquakes, ſometimes diſturb their quiet. This mount, within a mile and a half of the top, is covered ſo thick with the aſhes of the burnt earth, and grows ſo ſteep, that it is very difficult to aſcend it, and ſometimes it continues on fire for the better part of a month, throwing out burning matter with ſuch force, that ſome of it falls at thirty miles diſtance; and a vaſt quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, runs down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it which lies in its way; and ſometimes ſuch quantities of cinders and aſhes are thrown out that it is dark at Naples at noon day.

M. de la Condamine obſerves in his Journal of a Tour to Italy, that we meet every ſtep we take, on the road from Naples to Rome, and from Rome to Viterbo, Loretto, and other parts, productions like the lava of Veſuvius, whence he preſumes it follows, that all this part of Italy has been overturned by volcanos. Theſe plains which at preſent appear ſmiling and fertile, covered with olive-trees, mulberry-trees, and vineyards, as are alſo to the very

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very day even the ſides of Veſuvius, have formerly been, like them, over-run with burning waves, and like them bear not only in their bowels, but even on their ſurface, the veſtiges of thoſe torrents of fire, the billows of which are at preſent grown cold again and condenſed. It is well known, adds he, that Naples is paved with this lava; but it is ſurpriſing that nobody has yet remarked that the pavement of Rome is alſo compoſed of the ſame materials. As much may be ſaid of the pavement of the greater part of the ancient Roman highways, and perhaps of all thoſe of which any veſtiges are remaining from Rome to Naples, as well as on the road from Naples to Puzzuoli and Cumea. In ſhort it is the ſame with the Appian Way, which ſtill ſubſiſts, and makes a part of the high road from Rome to Naples. This antique pavement is entirely compoſed of lava. We ſhall be leſs ſurpriſed at this, when we come to know that the foundations of the houſes in the ſubterranean city of Herculaneum, built now two thouſand years ago are pure lava. This proves evidently, that the great eruptions of Veſuvius are not all of them poſterior to that which ſwallowed up the city of Herculaneum, and that vaſt conflagrations have happened anterior to all hiſtorical monuments. But though the city of Herculaneum is, in fact, buried under ſeveral ſtrata of lava, properly ſo called, yet we muſt not imagine, that its ſtreets, ſquares, and buildings are covered with lava: were this the caſe, neither the pick-axe nor chiſſel would be able to penetrate there. The matter with which the anterior parts of the city are filled has never been either fuſed or liquid. It is only one immenſe maſs of cinders, earth, gravel, ſand, coal, pumice-ſtones, and other materials, launched forth through the mouth of the volcano at the time of its exploſion, and fallen again in heaps in all the circumjacent parts. Theſe at firſt buried all the houſes; by degrees they penetrated into the interior parts, as well by their own proper weight, as by the aſſiſtance of wind and rains, and laſtly, by the roofs and timbers giving way. This mixture being united by the infiltration of the waters, has condenſed in proceſs of time, and formed a kind of ſand-ſtone, more or leſs hard, but every where eaſy to be dug through.

The kingdom of Naples was, probably, firſt peopled from Greece, which lies but a little to the eaſtward of it: certain it is, the Greeks ſent ſeveral colonies hither afterwards, and gave it the name of Magna Græcia. This, with the reſt of Italy, was ſubdued by the Romans; and,

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on the decline of that empire, in the fifth century, the Eaſtern emperor poſſeſſed himſelf of one part of Naples, and the Goths of the other. The Lombards diſpoſſeſſed the Goths of their part, and remained maſters of it, until the were expelled by Charlemagne, about the year 800. In the ninth and tenth centuries, the Saracens ſubdued a great part of Naples; but the pope, with the aſſiſtance of other Chriſtian powers, drove out the Saracens again: in which ſervice, Tancred the Norman, and his twelve ſons, having had a great ſhare, part of Naples was given them by the pope. Robert, the ſon of Tancred, was created duke of Apulia and Calabria by the German emperor; and Roger, the ſon of Robert, was made king of the Two Sicilies, viz. Naples and Sicily. The heirs of Tancred enjoyed this crown till the year 1166, when, happening to diſoblige the pope, he introduced the earl of Anjou and the French, and his poſterity were kings of Naples and Sicily, till the Spaniards diſpoſſeſſed them about the year 1504. The kings of Spain continued ſovereigns of Naples till 1707, when the Spaniards were driven from thence by the imperialiſts, and Naples was confirmed to the emperor Charles VI. by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. The French, Spaniards, and Sardinians, entering into a war with the emperor, in 1734, reduced Naples, and made don Carlos, the king of Spain's ſon, king of Naples; and he was confirmed in that throne by the emperor, at a ſubſequent treaty. He continued in poſſeſſion of that kingdom till his late acceſſion to the crown of Spain, having procured his third ſon Ferdinand, born the 12th of January, 1751, to be made king in his room.

The dignified clergy and nobility of this kingdom are very numerous. Theſe are, it is ſaid, twenty-five archbiſhops, one hundred and twenty-five biſhops, and three hundred princes, dukes, marquiſſes, and earls. The clergy poſſeſs one third of the kingdom; the crown, nobility, and gentry, the reſt; the peaſants have ſcarce any thing they can call their own; they are ſubjects and vaſſals to their reſpective lords, manure their lands, plant their vineyards and olive-yards, and are allowed only a ſubſiſtence ſufficient to enable them to perform their daily drudgery, and receive juſtice in their lords courts in caſes that are not capital, inſomuch that every lord or gentleman, who is proprietor of the ſoil, is ſovereign of the people who live upon his eſtate. The Neapolitans have a numerous militia, the nobility and gentry holding their lands

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lands by military tenures; but theſe are little depended on, and ſeldom called out, the king uſually maintaining fifteen thouſand regular troops in time of peace, and being able to raiſe twice that number in time of war. The revenues of the crown are computed to amount to one million ſterling.

The goodneſs of the port of Naples draws thither a great number of foreign ſhipping. They were daily, under the late reign of don Carlos, endeavouring to render the ſame more grand and magnificent: its principal trade conſiſts in divers ſorts of ſilk ſtuffs, raw ſilk, knit ſilk ſtockings and waiſtcoats; oils of various ſorts, ſulphur after the Calabrian manner, roſemary flowers, aniſe and coriander ſeed, dried raiſins, raiſins of Corinth, figs and olives, tartar, ſoap, dried orange and citron peels, eſſences and quinteſſences of all kinds.

SECT VI.

Of Switzerland.

WE muſt now return from the ſouth of Italy to the north, to take a view of Switzerland, a country which, though ſurrounded with rocks, and in a manner inacceſſible, yet is very conſiderable, and of great conſequence from its ſituation.

The dominions of the Switzers are bounded on the north by part of Alſace, the Black Foreſt, and the circle of Swabia; on the eaſt by the country of Tyrol; on the ſouth by the duchies of Savoy and Milan, by the territories of Bergamo and Breſcia; and on the weſt by the Franche Compté, or county of Burgundy. It appears from hence that they have for neighbours the ſubjects of the houſe of Auſtria, thoſe of the crown of France, the king of Sardinia, and the ſtate of Venice. We need nothing more to give us very high notions of the force and bravery of this nation, than the bare obſervation, that they have not only preſerved their freedom in ſpite, but have been alſo always formidable to the moſt potent of their neighbours: yet their country is very far from being large; in length ſomewhat leſs than three hundred, and in breadth very little more than a hundred miles.

The inhabitants of Switzerland may be divided into three parts: firſt, the Swiſs, properly ſo called, or the thirteen cantons, which ſtand in the following order:

1. Zurich;

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1. Zurich; 2. Bern; 3. Lucern; 4. Wic; 5. Switz; 6. Underwald; 7. Zug; 8. Glaris; 9. Bazil, or Basle; 10. Friburg; 11. Soluthurn; 12. Schaffhausen; and, 13. Appenzel. Of which the protestant cantons are, Zurich, Bern, Bazil, and Schaffhausen, with above two-thirds of the canton of Glaris, and more than half of Appenzel; the people in the rest are all Roman Catholics.

Secondly, the subjects of the Switzers, which are either such towns and bailliages as belong to them all, or to several in common, or that depend upon several cantons. Of the former they reckon nine; viz. the county of Baden, the Free Villages, the counties of Turgovy, Sargantz, and Rhintal, and the four Italian bailliages of Lugano, Locarno, Mendrisco, and Valmodia, to which we must add the three cities without territory of Boemgarten, Mellingen, and Rapperswail. The four Italian bailliages were dismembered from the duchy of Milan, and belong to all the cantons except Appenzel, which at that time was not admitted into the alliance. Three other bailliages in Italy, viz. Pellinzona, Valbrima, and Riviera, were conquered by the cantons of Zurich, Switz, and Underwald, from the dukes of Milan. The little territory of Alsax, and the county of Werdenberg, both seated on the Rhine, belong the former to the canton of Zurich, and the latter to that of Glaris. The bailliage of Gasteren belongs to the cantons of Switz and Glaris; and the cantons of Bern and Friburg possess the four bailliages of Morat, Gremton, Echelens, Swartzenburg, which they conquered from the dukes of Savoy.

Thirdly, the allies of the Switzers are the Grisons, who are divided into three leagues, that of the Grisons, of the House of God, and of the Ten Jurisdictions: they are partly Protestants, and partly Roman Catholics, and have also a considerable conquered country that belongs to them: the town and county of Neufchatel, of which the king of Prussia is sovereign; the abbot and city of St. Gall; the little republic of Wallis; the city and republic of Geneva; the town of Bierne or Biel, allied to the canton of Bern; and the town of Mulhausen, not far from Bazil, to which it is allied.

The Switzers, formerly called the Helvetians, were brought under the dominion of the Romans by Julius Cæsar, who added their country to his province of Gaul. They were afterwards part of the kingdom of Burgundy, then subject to France, and then to the German empire: but, being oppressed, they threw off their allegiance, and erected

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erected ſeveral independent ſtates; and, at the treaty of Weſtphalia, in 1648, they were acknowleged free and independent. There is hardly one of the cantons, ſtates, or cities, above mentioned, that agrees with another in point of government; and, indeed, every kind of government that ever was invented is to be found amongſt them; yet they are all maintained under their reſpective forms, and in their reſpective rights, from that common love of freedom and juſtice, which prevails generally among the whole nation.

The greateſt part of their country is the moſt rugged in its appearance, and naturally the moſt barren in its ſoil of any in Europe; and yet by dint of labour and cultivation they render it tolerably fruitful. All their cities are well built, populous, and many of their inhabitants live pretty much at their eaſe, which is owing partly to their induſtry, and partly to their frugality. The gentry of Switzerland, notwithſtanding what is generally reported of them, are, generally ſpeaking, tolerably educated, and, from their ſeeing foreign countries, commonly well bred. Their traders have great privileges, and ſome of them are in wealthy circumſtances; and as for their peaſants, they are very hardy and laborious. As their women are juſtly reputed very honeſt, as well as very good houſewives, ſo they are, generally ſpeaking, very prolific, and their country being but narrow, this lays them under an abſolute neceſſity of ſending out numbers every year to ſeek their bread in foreign countries. Being naturally of a martial diſpoſition, and accuſtomed to arms from their youth, they uſually ſeek ſome foreign ſervice or other; thoſe of the Roman Catholic cantons go into the French and Spaniſh pay; thoſe of the Proteſtants, and not a few others likewiſe, into that of the States General; but wherever they are, they have the honour to be accounted as good troops as any in the world. After ſome years ſervice more or leſs, according to their contracts, the private men return home, though their corps remain ſtill in foreign ſervice, and are, from time to time, filled up with freſh recruits. It is owing to theſe people who have ſerved abroad, both officers and ſoldiers, that the Swiſs are never at a loſs for as large and well-diſciplined an army as any government in Europe can raiſe, which are at the ſame time the guardians of their own liberty, and the protectors of their neighbours freedom. Neither is their power grounded only on opinion, for they have defended themſelves, at different times, againſt moſt of the great powers in Europe;

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rope; and though they have been ſometimes outwitted, yet they were never beaten, or reduced to demand peace, by any power whatever; ſo that they may be juſtly conſidered, taking in their ſituation and militia, as the moſt unconquerable people in Europe.

It is very difficult to make a juſt computation of the force of the Swiſs. Things are much changed with them from what they were formerly. They have now ſeveral good fortreſſes, though heretofore they had none. Several of the cantons are now very rich, and beſides great ſums locked up at home, they have alſo great wealth in foreign banks, and particularly in our funds. Every great city is well furniſhed with artillery, and at Bern and Zurich they have field and battering trains of braſs cannon, than which there are few better in Europe. Yet with all this force, they are not in the leaſt formidable to thoſe that live near them, ſince they are without doubt the very beſt neighbours in the world; ſo void of ambition that they have no idea of conqueſt, ſuch lovers of juſtice that the very report of oppreſſion will bring them to the relief of the diſtreſſed. By this means the city of Geneva has been often, and will probably be always, protected againſt two very formidable powers, one the moſt enterprizing, and the other the moſt ambitious, in Europe.

It is in this country, and its confines, that the Alps, the higheſt mountains in Europe, excite the attention of travellers. The melting of the ſnows in ſummer, being ſuſpended every night in their gorges, and renewed again every day during the hours in which the ſun is hotteſt, gives occaſion to very fantaſtical appearances. A valley, in whoſe depth the eye is loſt, covered with rough pieces of ice reſembling waves, and the whole ſurface of this ſea again congealed, and interſected here and there with deep crevices; the noiſe of a ſubterraneous torrent which ſuſtains this enormous maſs, and changes the appearance, as well as level of it from day to day; all theſe effects wrought by changes that are almoſt ſudden, and variouſly combined of heat and cold, can ſcarce be ſeen any where elſe in ſo aſtoniſhing a degree: they form together a very ſingular ſpectacle, worthy the curioſity of naturaliſts, and calculated to furniſh a variety of obſervations.

SECT.

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SECT. VII.

Of the Auſtrian, French, and United Netherlands.

THIS country was anciently called Gallia Belgica, and the inhabitants Belgæ, but was of a much larger extent than the preſent Netherlands; of which the boundaries now, are the German Ocean, or North Sea, on the north; the Britiſh Sea, with part of Picardy, on the weſt; the reſt of Picardy, with Champagne or Lorrain, on the ſouth; and the archbiſhoprick of Triers and Treves, the duchies of Juliers and Cleves, the biſhoprick of Munſter, and the county of Embden, or Eaſt Friefland, on the eaſt. It is ſituated between 49 deg. 25 min. to 53 deg. 25 min. of latitude; and between 2 deg. 5 min. to 6 deg. 50 min. of longitude, eaſt from London.

The greateſt part of the Netherlands was conquered by the Romans; and that part which lies towards Gaul continued in their ſubjection till the decline of that empire; after which the Francs became maſters of it; and, under the French monarchy, it was part of the kingdom of Metz or Auſtraſia.

The diviſion of the Netherlands into ſo many ſtates is derived from the earls or counts of Ardenne. Their origin was from the ſons of Clodion, king of France, who, being kept out of that ſucceſſion by Merovee, were forced, for their ſecurity, to betake themſelves to the moſt defenſible places of the foreſt of Ardenne, and the countries on the banks of the Moſelle, where they founded the two great earldoms of the Moſelle, and the Ardenne. The former belongs to Germany; the latter comprehended part of Flanders and Brabant, all Hainault, Namur, Limburg, and Luxemburg, together with the duchy of Bouillon. Theſe large eſtates continued peaceably under the earls of Ardenne for ſome time, who, growing powerful and great, became the envy of their neighbours, and were attacked by Dagobert, king of Metz, and ſon to Clotharius II. king of France, who in battle overcame and ſlew Brunulph, earl of Ardenne, and ſeized his country, giving only Hainault as an earldom to Albert, his ſon. Dagobert ſucceeded his father in the kingdom of Neuſtria, in 629, whereby he became king of almoſt all France, being before king of Metz or Auſtraſia, and of Burgundy: he gave away ſeveral parts of the country or earldom of Ardenne; but the reſt

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reſt ſtill bore the title of an earldom, and continued for a long time a very conſiderable ſtate.

Towards the year 940, Luxemburg and Limburg were given to two of the younger ſons of Ricuine, earl of Ardenne, and, about the ſame time, Namur was erected into an earldom: the reſt came afterwards by marriage to the houſe of Lorrain; which continued in poſſeſſion of it a long time. Such is the origin of the earldoms of Luxemburg, Limburg, and Namur.

Part of Brabant, as above obſerved, was included in the earldom of Ardenne; the other part, which lies towards the ſea, was very much infeſted, and even almoſt depopulated by the depredations of the Danes and Normans; wherefore, to guard the coaſt, and protect the inhabitants, a certain officer was appointed, called lord warden of the marches, which title was continued till Utilo, nephew of Aldiagerius, king of the Boioarians (the people of Bavaria), having ſhewn great courage againſt theſe pirates, was honoured with the title of lord marquis of Antwerp: one of his deſcendents, named Anſegeſtus was maire of the palace in France, and made duke of Brabant; and his great-grandſon, Pepin, obtaining the crown of France, that duchy became a province of that kingdom, and was afterwards part of the kingdom of Lorrain. About the year 980, the cities and territories of Bruſſels, Louvain, Antwerp, and Nivelle, were ſeparated from the duchy of Brabant, and made a new ſtate, with the title of the marquiſite of the holy empire, by the emperor Otho II. and given to his aunt, whoſe grand-daughter Gerburg, ſucceeding her, conveyed it by marriage to Lambert, ſon of Reyner, earl of Hainault, who had the title of earl of Louvain: he was ſucceeded in it by his deſcendents, one of whom, named Godfrey VII. earl of Louvain, conquered the reſt of the country, and was created duke of Brabant.

Flanders was a wild and waſte country, the ſea-coaſts being infeſted by the Daniſh pirates, and the other parts but meanly cultivated, till it was conquered by the French kings, who, ſoon after the eſtabliſhment of their monarchy, appointed a certain officer, with the title of foreſter of Flanders, to ſuppreſs the robbers who infeſted the woods and the ſea-coaſts, and by government and protection to civilize the people, and encourage them to induſtry. This office continued in the ſame family for ſeveral deſcents, and was at length changed into the title

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of a count or earl, about the year 864, by Charles the Bald, emperor and king of France, in favour of Baldwin, the ſeventh foreſter, who had married his ſiſter.

Artois was included in the earldom of Flanders, till the year 1234, when Robert, grandſon of Philip Auguſtus, king of France, and huſband to Iſabella, daughter of Baldwin VIII. earl of Flanders, was made earl of Artois.

Guelderland was part of the French kingdom of Auſtraſia, and with it became part of the empire of Germany; and as ſuch was governed by certain guardians, or protectors, firſt inſtituted in the reign of Charles the Bald, of whom Otho of Naſſau was the firſt free prince, created earl by the emperor Henry V. in the year 1079; and his deſcendent Raynold, was made duke of Guelderland in 1339.

Zutphen was a ſeparate earldom for many years, till it became united with Guelderland, by the marriage of Otho of Naſſau, juſt now mentioned, with Sophia the daughter of Wickman, the laſt earl of Zutphen.

Holland and Zealand, a rude unpeopled country, being much infeſted by the Norman piracies, were firſt made an earldom by the emperor Lewis II. about the year 863, and given to Thierry, in whoſe line the ſucceſſion continued till the death of John, about the year 1300, who, leaving no iſſue, was ſucceeded by John of Aveſnes, earl of Hainault, ſon of Alcide, the daughter of Florence IV. earl of Holland.

Friſeland was but a part of the country of the ancient Friſii, ſome part of Utrecht and Overyſſel, as well as Eaſt Friſeland in Germany, being inhabited by thoſe people, who were governed by their own kings, till they were conquered by Charlemagne; and this part, now one of the ſeventeen province, was annexed to the duchy of Guelderland, and was afterwards a diſtinct barony.

Overyſſel and Groningen were part of the epiſcopal ſee of Utrecht, firſt founded about the year 600, by Dagobert, king of France, in favour of Willibald, an Engliſhman, the firſt converter of theſe countries to Chriſtianity, whoſe ſucceſſors were temporal as well as ſpiritual lords of their dioceſe, for nine hundred years, and were very powerful princes.

It being thought neceſſary thus briefly to mention the origin of theſe dukedoms, earldoms, and lordſhips, we ſhall now relate how they came to be all ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

Philip,

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How the Netherland became subject to the house of Auſtria.

Philip, ſurnamed the Hardy, or Bold, duke of Burgundy, and ſon of John, king of France, married Margaret the only daughter of Lewis de Male, or Malain, earl of Flanders and Artois, and ſucceeded to theſe two earldoms after the death of Lewis, who died in the year 1383. Antony of Burgundy, the ſecond ſon of Philip, got the duchies of Brabant and Limburg, the marquiſate of the holy empire, and the lordſhip of Mechlin, or Malines, in the year 1406, as heir to Jane, his aunt, by the father's ſide, the daughter of John III. duke of Brabant, and ſiſter to Margaret, the wife of Lewis de Male. He left two ſons, John IV. who died April the 17th, 1426, and Philip, who died Auguſt the 4th, 1430. As they both died childleſs, Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy, their firſt couſin, ſucceeded to thoſe duchies, to the marquiſate, and to the lordſhip of Mechlin: he had bought, in the year 1429, the county of Namur of Thierry, the laſt earl, leaving him, however, the title and profits of it till his death. John, the ſon of Philip the Good, had married Margaret, the daughter of Albert of Bavaria, earl of Holland, and ſiſter to William, the father of Joan of Bavaria, counteſs of Hainault, Holland, and Zealand, and lady of Frizeland. This counteſs had four huſbands, but no children by any of them; ſo that Philip the Good, who was her firſt couſin, inherited all her eſtates, the adminiſtration and government of which ſhe had been obliged to give up to him ſome years before ſhe died. The ſame Philip did, in the year 1443, ſeize upon the duchy of Luxemburg, having driven out of it William, duke of Brunſwick, who had uſurped it from Elizabeth, the widow of Antony, duke of Brabant, and daughter of John of Luxemberg, duke of Gorlitz, who was brother to the emperors Wenceſlaus and Sigiſmund. Charles, the ſon of Philip the Good, bought, in the year 1472, the duchy of Guelderland, and the county of Zutphen, of Arnold of Egmond, the father of Adolphus, who was a priſoner at Courtray; but Charles being killed in the year 1476, Catherine, the ſiſter of Adolphus, retook Guelderland for her nephew, Charles of Egmond. Mary, the only daughter and heireſs of Charles, duke of Burgundy, juſt now mentioned, married Maximilian of Auſtria, ſon of the emperor Ferdinand III. and brought him in marriage the duchies of Brabant, Limburg, and Luxemberg; the counties of Flanders, Burgundy, Hainault, Holland, Zealand, and Namur; and the lordſhips of Friſeland. Philip of Auſtria, ſon to Maximilian and Mary, married Jane,

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Jane, the daughter of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and of Iſabella, queen of Caſtile, by which means, their ſon Charles inherited not only almoſt all Spain, and the great countries then lately diſcovered in America, but alſo thoſe noble provinces of the Netherlands; and was choſen emperor, under the name of Charles V. Towards the latter end of the year 1527, he added to his dominions the temporalities of the biſhoprick of Utrecht, on both ſides of the Yſſel; and Henry of Bavaria, being diſtreſſed, through war with the duke of Guelderland, and tired with the continued rebellion of his own ſubjects, ſurrendered to the emperor the temporalities of his dioceſe, which was confirmed by the pope, and the ſtates of the country. In 1536, Charles V. bought of Charles of Egmond the reverſion of the duchy of Guelderland, and of the county of Zutphen, in caſe that prince ſhould die without iſſue. The ſame year the city of Gröningen took the oath of allegiance, and ſubmitted to Charles V. and in 1543 he put a garriſon in the city of Cambray, and built a citadel there. Having thus united the ſeventeen provinces, as it were in one body, he ordered that they ſhould continue for ever under the ſame prince, without being ever ſeparated or diſmembered; for which purpoſe, he publiſhed in November, 1549, with the conſent, and at the requeſt of the ſtates of all the provinces, a perpetual and irrevokable edict, or law, by which it was enacted, that in order to keep all thoſe provinces together under one and the ſame prince, the right of repreſentation, with regard to the ſucceſſion of a prince, or princeſs, ſhould take place for ever, both in a direct and collateral line, notwithſtanding the common laws of ſome provinces to the contrary. Charles had even a mind to incorporate theſe provinces with the Germanic body, and to make of them a circle of the empire, under the title of the circle of Burgundy, in order thereby to engage princes of the empire to concern themſelves for the preſervation of thoſe provinces. But the Netherlanders, always jealous of their liberty, did not ſeem to like that incorporation; and, when they were demanded to pay their ſhare towards the expences of the empire, they refuſed it; whereupon the princes of Germany refuſed, in their turn, to take any part in the wars in Flanders, and looked upon thoſe provinces as by no means belonging to the Germanic body.

Philip of Auſtria, and his ſon Charles, who were born in the Netherlands, had for theſe provinces that natural affection which men uſed to have for their native coun-

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try; and, knowing how jealous the inhabitants were of their liberty, and of the privileges granted to them by their former princes, they took great care to preſerve them, and ſuffered willingly, that the ſtates, who were the guardians of the people's liberty and privileges, ſhould, in a manner, ſhare the ſupreme authority with them. Philip II. ſon to the emperor Charles V. had not the ſame affection for the Netherlands, nor thoſe generous ſentiments which his father had endeavoured to inſpire him with. Being born in Spain, of a Portugueſe woman, he had no regard but for his native country; and, when he removed out of the Netherlands, he left them to the weak government of a woman, to the proud and haughty ſpirit of cardinal de Granville, and to the wild ambition of ſome lords of theſe provinces, who, availing themſelves of the imprudent conduct and continual blunders of the council of Spain, found their private intereſt in the diſturbances they could not fail to produce. Philip II. alſo, inſtead of the mild and moderate meaſures which his predeceſſors had ſucceſsfully employed, on many occaſions, as beſt ſuiting the genius and temper of the people, had recourſe to the moſt violent and cruel proceedings; which, far from curing the evil, ſerved only to exaſperate it the more, and render it incurable. The Spaniards, whom he ſent thither, being born and educated in an abſolute monarchy, jealous of the liberties, and envious of the riches of the people, broke through all their privileges; and uſed them almoſt after the ſame manner as they had done the inhabitants of their new and ill-gotten dominions in America. This treatment occaſioned a general inſurrection. The counts Hoorn, Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it, and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the ſame time in the Netherlands, his diſciples joined the malecontents: whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquiſition, in order to ſuppreſs them, and many thouſands were put to death by that court, beſides thoſe that periſhed by the ſword; for theſe perſecutions and incroachments had occaſioned a civil war, in which ſeveral battles were fought. The counts Hoorn and Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, retiring into Holland, did, by the aſſiſtance of England and France, preſerve Holland and ſome of the adjacent provinces, which entered into a treaty for their mutual defence at Utrecht, in 1579, and they have ever ſince been ſtyled the United Provinces; but the other provinces were reduced to the obedience of Spain,

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Spain by the duke of Alva, and other Spaniſh generals. However, their ancient privileges were in a great meaſure reſtored; every province was allowed its great council, or parliament, whoſe concurrence was required to the making of laws, and raiſing money for the government, though theſe aſſemblies were too often obliged to follow the dictates of the court; and, as for thoſe which have been reduced under the government of France, they are now under the ſame arbitrary dominion, as the reſt of the ſubjects of that crown.

The Spaniards continued poſſeſſed of almoſt eight of theſe provinces, until the duke of Marlborough, general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies. After which, Bruſſels, the capital, and great part of theſe provinces, acknowleged Charles VI. (afterwards emperor) their ſovereign; and his daughter, the late empreſs-queen, remained poſſeſſed of them till the war that followed the death of her father, when the French made an entire conqueſt of them, except part of the province of Luxemburg; but they were reſtored by the peace of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, and the French retain only Artois, the Cambreſis, part of Flanders, part of Hainault, and part of Luxemburg, of which they have had the dominion now upwards of eighty years.

Soil, climate, and face of the country.

The ſoil is generally fruitful, but differs in the ſeveral parts. The climate alſo differs in the ſeveral provinces; in thoſe towards the ſouth it does not differ much from that of England, though the ſeaſons are more regular. In the northern provinces the winter is generally very ſharp, and the ſummer ſultry hot; but the extreme cold, and exceſſive heat, ſeldom continue above five or ſix weeks. The air is reckoned very wholeſome, but is ſubject to thick fogs in winter, through the moiſtneſs of the country, which would be very noxious, were it not for the dry eaſterly winds, which, blowing off a long continent for two or three months in the year, clear the air, and cauſe very ſharp froſts in January and February; during which, the ports, rivers, and canals, are commonly ſhut up. The face of the country is low and flat, for, except ſome ſmall hills, and a few riſing grounds in the provinces of Utrecht and Guelderland, and in the parts lying towards Germany, there is no hill to be ſeen in the whole ſeventeen provinces. This is the reaſon that they have been called the Low Countries. The provinces towards the ſea lie ſo very low, that large parts of them have been many times

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overflowed by the eruptions of the ſea, notwithſtanding the ſtrong banks, which the inhabitants keep up at a great expence, almoſt all along the coaſt of Groningen, Friſeland, North Holland, Zealand, &c. Theſe banks and dykes are commonly ſeventeen ells thick, and yet have not been found ſufficient to reſiſt the violence of the ſea and land floods. They may, however, be reckoned among their curioſities, with ſome Roman paved highways ſtill entire. But their greateſt curioſities are their manufactures of lawn, cambric, lace, and tapeſtry, in which they excel all the world.

Commercial concerns of the Netherlands.

The Netherlands were once the center of the woollen manufactures, which we have now the ſatisfaction to call the Engliſh manufactures, but originally derived from the Flemings, whoſe country was thereby immenſely populous and enriched. The materials for theſe manufactures, particularly the wool and the fullers-earth, they had from England. The Engliſh did not ſee their error till about the year 1450, when they began to think that theſe manufactures might as well be carried on in England as in Flanders, and their own people employed in this prodidigious ſcene of traffic, to the enriching of themſelves rather than their neighbours. On theſe motives they wiſely put a ſtop to the exportation of wool, and the clothing was gradually encouraged in England, by the means of manufacturers obtained from the Netherlands, to inſtruct our people. The Flemings, being thus deprived of their fund of wool, were obliged to turn their hands to other things; which brought them to the making of lace and linen, to ſilk-weaving, and to other buſineſs of various kinds; ſo that the manufactures carried on in theſe provinces at preſent, are, 1. Lace, known by the name of bone-lace, of which the fineſt and beſt of the kind in Europe is ſaid to be made at Bruſſels. 2. Fine thread. 3. Linen, conſiſting chiefly of cambrics and lawns. 4. Woollen, which includes the tapeſtry made at Aras and the adjacent country. 5. Silk, of which at preſent they make not only ſufficient for their own uſe, but for exportation. This domeſtic trade neceſſarily creates a great foreign one, where the ſituation will admit of it; and ſo conſiderable are the exports of theſe manufactures, that very good judges have eſtimated them at no leſs, in fine thread, bone-lace, and linen, including their lawns and cambrics, than to the value of two millions ſterling a-year.

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In regard to induſtry, the Netherlands are an example to the whole world, Nothing can live where they ſtarve, and nothing is idle among them that can ſuſtain any degree of labour. The univerſal navigation of the rivers and canals paſſing through innumerable cities and populous towns, implies, that there muſt be a great inland traffic; and this, indeed, in proportion to the extent of territory, is a prodigious buſineſs. The trade of the French and Dutch Netherlands is much the ſame with that of the Auſtrian; and, in regard to the Dutch particularly, it may be ſaid, that there is not a manufacture in Europe but is managed to advantage among them, nor a place in the world but they viſit with their fleets. They have alſo ſome advantages in their traffic, which the reſt of the world cannot rival them in, particularly in the ſale of the fine ſpices, which they have monopolized theſe hundred years, and in the herring and whale fiſheries, by which they acquire immenſe wealth.

Cauſes contributing to the great trade of the Dutch.

The great trade of Holland aroſe chiefly from the deſtruction of Antwerp, which, when the civil wars in the Netherlands broke out, was, and had long been the center of traffic in Europe. The troubles in France, the wars in Germany, and the religious perſecutions ſet on foot in other parts of Europe, continued to fill the United Provinces with people, merely becauſe here they might enjoy their conſciences, and the fruits of their induſtry, in peace. Thoſe who reſorted thither were ſuch as had wherewithal to live upon, or were acquainted with ſome manufacture or myſtery, by which a living might be obtained. Both were welcome, and both ſorts of people were very ſoon at their eaſe; new manufactures were every day ſet on foot, and trades too big even for a wealthy purſe were managed with facility, and to great advantage, by joint ſtocks; the fiſheries were annually improved; new branches of commerce were continually opened; and, in the compaſs of twenty years, their villages ſwelled into fair towns, and thoſe that were good towns before, roſe into rich cities. At firſt, the inhabitants of thoſe provinces carried on a large trade to Portugal, from whence they received great quantities of Indian goods; but when Philip II. became maſter of Portugal, he put an end to that trade, which, inſtead of proving a misfortune, was, in reality, of high advantage to the Dutch, by forcing them to attempt opening a trade to the Eaſt Indies, which, in the compaſs of a few years, they did with ſucceſs beyond their hopes; and this commerce being managed by a

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company with great prudence, frugality, and induſtry, ſoon produced prodigious advantages. This encouraged them to ſet up a Weſt India company, and that too became not leſs flouriſhing in a very ſhort ſpace of time. The ſubjects of the ſtate likewiſe, by the recommendation, and under the protection of Henry IV. of France, obtained leave to trade in all the ports within the dominions of the grand ſignior; ſo that their commerce in the Levant became alſo very conſiderable. Taking, therefore, their fiſheries, manufactures, and foreign trade together, we may eaſily account for the growth of their naval power, the increaſe of their wealth, and the poſſibility of their ſuſtaining that infinite variety of taxes, cuſtoms, and exciſes, which were neceſſary to ſupport ſo long and ſo expenſive a war, as that by which their liberties were eſtabliſhed and ſecured.

We ought likewiſe to obſerve, that the ſituation of affairs in Europe through this whole period, was remarkably favourable to the growth of this new republic. The overgrown power of Spain was equally dreadful and dangerous to moſt of the potentates in Europe, which induced them openly or ſecretly to give all the aſſiſtance poſſible to the inhabitants of theſe provinces upon their revolt; and the inteſtine diſturbances in ſeveral countries, but more eſpecially in Germany and France, prevented their meeting with any rivals; and though it be true that England began at that time to extend her commerce, and increaſe her naval power, yet this was ſo far from being any detriment, that it was in reality of very great ſervice to the Dutch, with whom they acted conjointly in warlike expeditions, and from whom, by the temptation of high wages, they drew numbers of experienced pilots, and able ſeamen, who were extremely uſeful to them in their early voyages both to the Eaſt and Weſt Indies. The quarrel between England and the Hanſe Towns turned alſo very much to their advantage; and in ſhort, before any ſpirit of envy and emulation aroſe, the republic was not only beyond the reach of danger, but infinitely ſuperior in every reſpect to any that could through envy aim at leſſening her grandeur, the progreſs of her proſperity being not barely quicker than either expectation or experience could ſuggeſt, but beyond any thing which either ancient or modern hiſtory records, and which by poſterity will be very hardly believed.

William of Naſſau, prince of Orange, ſurnamed the Great, was the firſt ſtadtholder, and may be properly called

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called the founder of the Dutch republic, by engaging the provinces of Gueldres, Holland, Zealand, Friſeland, and Utrecht, to aſſociate for their mutual ſafety in 1579. He ſpent his life in the ſtudy of war and politics, in which he was a great proficient, and not leſs diſtinguiſhed for his private virtues. At length he was aſſaſſinated, in conſequence of the reſentment of the Spaniards, and ſealed the generous actions of his life with his blood. His ſon Maurice, the ſecond ſtadtholder, adhering to the virtuous principles of his father, ſupported the independency of the republic. Henry Frederic, the next brother, ſucceeding to the ſtadtholderſhip, diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a warrior and a patriot. The fourth ſtadtholder was William II. who married the eldeſt daughter of our king Charles I. This prince dying at the age of twenty-four, left a poſthumous ſon, who was our William III. In his infancy the dignity of ſtadtholderſhip was annulled; but the terror of French armies obliged the ſtates to recur to that expedient to which they owed their very being, as a republic. King William fought their battles, and ſaved them. After his deceaſe, though the dignity of ſtadtholder was not aboliſhed, it was ſuffered to expire; nor did the ſtates revive it till the ſixth and late ſtadtholder, William Charles Henry Friſo, a collateral branch of the illuſtrious houſe of Orange, who, by the ſalutary mediation of a ſtrong party of his friends, and the ſpirit of a mob, when a French army was already at their doors, had this dignity conferred on him in 1745. The ſtadtholderſhip, which is now made hereditary in the houſe of Orange, was, from its original nature, elective; but the high and indelible obligations which the Dutch owe to William the Great, and the renowned patriotiſm and fidelity of the illuſtrious houſe of Orange, through every generation, have ever thrown the choice on this family as a kind of neceſſary conſequence. The preſent hereditary ſtadtholder is William V. prince of Orange and Naſſau, born March the 8th, 1748; he is ſon of the late ſtadtholder, by the princeſs Anne, eldeſt daughter of our king George II. The authority of the ſtadtholder is very confined, unleſs when he appears at the head of an army, and then, perhaps, he is not only an object of jealouſy, but his power is too much circumſcribed. The ſtadtholder ſometimes ſigns public treaties in conjunction with the ſtates, but ſuch treaties do not derive from hence the greater weight or authenticity; for though he is ſuppoſed to repreſent the dignity of the republic, yet, whilſt the

Stadtholderſhip and government of Holland.

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ſtates poſſeſs the ſovereignty, he cannot be conſidered but as a ſubject. He has, indeed, the power to pardon condemned malefactors, but he has not even a ſeat or vote in the aſſemblies of the ſtates. There are certain prerogatives annexed to the office, which vary in the different provinces, and are alterable by the power from whence they are derived, that is, by the ſtates-general. The appointment of the ſtadtholderſhip from the ſtates is one hundred thouſand gilders, or nine thouſand five hundred pounds ſterling; but the prince's paternal inheritance is far more conſiderable.

The ſtates-general conſiſt of deputies from every province, and are uſually about thirty in number; ſome provinces ſend two, others more; but every province has no more than one voice; and whatever reſolution the ſtates-general take, muſt be confirmed by every province, and by every city and republic in that province, before it has the force of a law. The deputies of eighteen cities, and one repreſentative of the nobility, conſtitute the ſtates of the province of Holland; Amſterdam, and every one of thoſe eighteen cities, are ſeparate and independent republics. In Amſterdam the legiſlative power is lodged in thirty-ſix ſenators, who continue members of the ſenate for life, and when one dies, his place is filled up by the ſurvivors; the ſenate alſo elect the deputies to repreſent the cities in the province of Holland. There is a council of ſtate, conſiſting of deputies from the ſeveral provinces; to which Holland ſends three, Guelderland, Zealand, and Utrecht two a-piece; and the provinces of Friſeland and Groningen, each of them one. In this council they do not vote by provinces, as in the ſtates-general, but by perſonal voices; and every deputy preſides by turns, and the ſtadtholder has a deciſive voice in this council, where the votes happen to be equal. This council calculates what taxes or forces will be neceſſary for the current year, and prepares other matters for the determination of the ſtates-general. In an aſſembly of the ſtates of a particular province, one diſſenting voice prevents their coming to any reſolution.

Chief places of trade in the United Provinces.

The Texel and the Maeſe are the two chief ports of the country, in which the head places of trade are Amſterdam and Rotterdam.

The city of Amſterdam has infinitely the ſuperior part; here all the fleets of ſhips arrive, as, the herring-fleet, the Greenland, the Eaſt country, the Turkey, and the Eaſt India fleets, with the fleet of men of war, or the national

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tional fleet. Among theſe, particular ſhips belong to the chambers of Rotterdam and Zealand, and to the merchants there; but the grand arſenal, both for war and trade, is at Amſterdam, the ſhips, ſtores, furniture of the men of war, and Eaſt India ſhips, being all laid up there; and, indeed, Amſterdam ſeems to be a general mart for navigation, more ſhips for ſale being built in it than in any place in the world; and not only ſhips, but fleets may be bought, if there is an occaſion, together with naval ſtores of all kinds, ammunition, and arms, having a ſufficiency for all the nations of Europe.

As the navigation is managed here, ſo is the merchandize they bring. Here the India-houſe and warehouſes are kept, and the goods ſold; here are the admiralty-offices, and the building-yards and docks, not for their own ſhipping only, but for all nations that chuſe to employ them; here is the bank, the only one in the country; the exchange, the greateſt in Europe, that of London only excepted. In ſhort, there is not a city in the world ſo rich, ſo populous, or that carries on ſo great a trade in ſo narrow a compaſs of ground. It is frequently ſurrounded with water, that threaten to ſwallow it up, and yet ſeldom or ever receives any conſiderable damage; and the number of ſhips and veſſels of all ſorts, which are always lying before it, is ſo great, that it is thought, ſhould any general inundation of the ſea drive them to that dreadful neceſſity, all the people in the city might at once embark, and be ſaved from drowning.

The city lies almoſt in the form of a creſcent. The port is of difficult acceſs, it being ſcarce poſſible for a loaded ſhip, or man of war, to enter the harbour; and, indeed, the Zuyder Sea is ſo ſhallow, and full of ſands, that ſcarce any but their own flat-bottomed veſſels can croſs it; but then this is their great ſecurity againſt foreign enemies, whoſe men of war ſcarce ever venture to purſue them beyond the Texel, and other entrances into this ſea. The foundations are laid upon great piles of timber drove into the moraſs on which the town ſtands, at a prodigious expence; the ſtadthouſe alone has upwards of thirteen thouſand piles of wood to bear up the foundation. The firſt mention of this town in hiſtory is about the year 1300, when it was a poor fiſhing town. In 1585, it appears to have been the chief town of trade in thoſe provinces, when they began to fortify it; and great additions were made to the fortifications in 1672, when Lewis XIV. invaded the country. The houſes are built with

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with brick or ſtone; the ſtreets ſpacious and well paved, and through moſt of them run canals, planted with trees. The town is computed to be half as big as London, including the fortifications, and in it are people of almoſt every nation, and every religion in Europe, who are all tolerated in their reſpective perſuaſions, but none admitted to any ſhare in the goverment but the Calviniſts.

Rotterdam is a flouriſhing city, but not to be compared with Amſterdam, to which it is as Briſtol is to London, though rather with a larger ſhare in the proportion. It is populous, and much more conveniently ſituated for trade than Amſterdam, the canals which run through it bringing ſhips up to the doors; and the Maeſe is much ſooner free from ice than the Wye at Amſterdam; on which account the Britiſh merchants reſort to this port more than to the other. There are ſeveral other towns of trade and note in the United Provinces; but we need only mention.

The Hague, which is ſituated in the province of Holland, two miles eaſt of the ſea. It is encompaſſed with fine meadows and groves, but no walls, and therefore eſteemed a village, but one of the largeſt and moſt elegant in Europe, and enjoys all the privileges of a city of Holland, except that of ſending repreſentatives to the ſtates. But here the ſtates of the province of Holland, and the ſtates-general aſſemble, as well as the council of ſtate, and their ſupreme courts of juſtice; and here foreign miniſters are admitted to audience, and all public affairs tranſacted; and here is a palace, in which there are apartments for the princes of Orange when ſtadtholders; the chambers of the ſtates-general, and provincial, and of the council of ſtate. On the weſt of the palace is a large area, ſurrounded by good houſes, and planted with fine walks of trees, which makes it ſometimes to be compared to St. James's park; and here every city of the United Provinces has a houſe for their reſpective deputies. On the north ſide of the Hague is a walk planted with lime-trees, two miles long, extending to the village of Scheveling, by the ſea-ſide.

Naval ſtrength of the Dutch.

As to the naval ſtrength of the Dutch, which we ſometimes hear much boaſted of, it may be ſaid, that in this particular at preſent they are forty years behind the Engliſh. Whether this wondrous change is an effect of unavoidable calamities, or of voluntary national defection from their ancient maxims of government, is not ſo eaſy to judge, though the latter cauſe may ſeem the more probable. It is now much above an hundred years ſince the Dutch

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Dutch were able to vie with England; and, towards the cloſe of the laſt century, even in time of peace, they thought it their intereſt to employ between thirty-five and forty ſhips of war. Upon an emergency, they were able to ſend an hundred ſail to ſea; it was computed, that the ſupport of thirty capital ſhips then coſt them annually only ſix millions of guilders. But if this power is departed from, which ſeems to be the caſe, and Great Britain left to take care of herſelf, the larger portion of commerce muſt fall to her ſhare, in order to the ſupport of a greater naval force. This conſideration ſeems to put us in mind of the preſent ſituation of Great Britain, and the neceſſity of application to our marine; not only as a counterbalance to the accumulating ſtrength of France and Spain, but as an eaſy and natural expedient to compenſate for the inſufficiency of the Dutch.

Genius, manners, &c. of the Dutch.

Travellers, either in purſuit of learning or pleaſure, ſeldom conſider this country in the ſame light as Italy, or France, and conſequently there is not much ſaid of it. Sir William Temple's general idea of the Dutch in his time is contained in theſe words: "Holland is a country where the earth is better than the air, and profit more in requeſt than honour; where there is more ſenſe than wit, more good-nature than good-humour, and more wealth than pleaſure; where a man would chuſe rather to travel than to live; ſhall find more things to obſerve than deſire; and more perſons to eſteem than to love." As a kind of contraſt to what is remarked by this polite author, a burleſque hiſtorian ſays, "In Holland the four elements are good for nothing; it is a country where they worſhip a golden idol, ſeated on a throne of cheeſe, and crowned with tobacco; where art ſurpaſſes nature, and induſtry alone makes the ſtate flouriſh; where ruſticity of ſpeech is preferred to the perſuaſive ſoftneſs of gentle words, and a coarſeneſs of manners makes a ſhew of liberty; where the wives are miſtreſſes, and the huſbands ſervants; where the houſes, by dint of frequent waſhings, appear as cabinets; and an exceſs of cleanlineſs is inconvenient; in a word, where butter and cheeſe is the harveſt and reward of the people's toil."

The Dutch are moſt certainly devoted to commerce, and, though in the midſt of Europe, detached as it were from other nations, they are bred up in an abhorrence of regal power, and conſequently have a diſtaſte of the manners of the polite nations who are ſubject to this form of government. Under theſe circumſtances they can hardly be

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be ſuppoſed to raiſe many men of genius, or to cultivate the more refined arts of contemplative life and liberal ſcience. Hence the eaſe, the gentleneſs, the ſweetneſs of manners, which we find in polite nations, are ſeldom poſſeſſed, even amongſt the higher ranks of the people in Holland, though we often meet with an exceſs of complaiſance; nor is this at all ſurpriſing, if we conſider, that men devoted to arts of gain from their earlieſt life can with difficulty be formed to a true taſte of ſociety. The amuſement in which the Dutch have the greateſt pretence to delicacy, is, that of gardening, for which ſome of them contract ſo great a paſſion, that there is a law for reſtraining the price of tulip-roots. They are ſo well convinced that much diverſion not only creates expence, but calls off the mind from buſineſs and domeſtic duties, that in Amſterdam no public ſhews are permitted within the walls. After ſeven in the evening every perſon that paſſes the gates pays one one ſtiver, and a coach five ſtivers; ſo that diverſions are taxed with this impoſt. It is not, however, very conſiderable, for the people have not a great paſſion for theatrical entertainments. In the winter-time ſkaiting is their greateſt amuſement. Their retired manner of living is often the occaſion that the men when they affect a chearful, polite, and delicate turn of manners, are aukward; and when gay, wicked; the ſame remark holds with the women alſo, when they depart from a reſerved habit of life. Their notions of religion, which muſt ever influence the manners of a people, are not very liberal; and though the practice of it is ſtrictly enjoined as a duty, it does not appear to be rendered delightful.

It is not difficult to conceive, that conſtant application to buſineſs and indefatigable induſtry not diverted by any of the warmer paſſions, nor by the habit or temptation of pleaſure, ſhould produce that degree of wealth, power, and influence, at which the Dutch once arrived, and of which, with reſpect to individuals, they may yet boaſt. But there is nothing which lowers the reputation of the Dutch, or reflects greater diſhonour on them than their cruelty. This does not ſo much ariſe from fiery particles in their blood, or warm paſſions, as the love of money; and they ſeem to have followed the example of their old maſters, by taking the ſame ſteps to ſupport themſelves in the Eaſt as the others did in the Weſt Indies. In this Great Britain is diſtinguiſhed, no part of her greatneſs being owing to unwarrantable ſlaughter.

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SECT. VIII.

Of Germany.

GERMANY ought, with good reaſon, to challenge a ſpecial attention from the curious, as being the ſeat of a great people, and of many ſovereignties of different denominations, and under various forms of government; a country of large extent, and the ſcene of many and great actions; a country, whoſe affairs and tranſactions are interwoven with thoſe of every nation in Europe, of which it may be termed both the head and center; a country, whoſe princes are every day forming alliances of marriage, which pave a way for them to the principal thrones of Europe, ſeveral of which, as thoſe of Great Britain, Poland lately, Sweden, and Pruſſia, we ſee filled at this day by ſome of its princes; a country, which, for the good ſenſe, conſiderable learning, and the many uſeful and ingenious inventions of the natives, highly deſerves of all her neighbours; to all this it may added, that it is our original country; that from thence came our anceſtors, whoſe language, cuſtoms, laws, we, in a good meaſure, ſtill retain, together with their form of government, the chief glory and happineſs of the Britiſh iſles. Upon theſe accounts, no Engliſhman can call this country foreign, nor its natives foreigners to him. Indeed, moſt nations in Europe have been either peopled from hence, or ſubdued by its armies; as happened to this iſland by the Saxons; to Gaul, by the Franks; to Italy, Spain, and Afric, by the Goths and Vandals; to thoſe glorious people almoſt all Europe, and part of Aſia and Africa, owed their freedom from thoſe chains wherewith the Roman power had ſo long bound them; and, wherever any of their colonies ſettled, they eſtabliſhed a juſt and mild government on the ruins of tyranny.

Germany, in what reſpects deſerving of our attention.

Germany, as ſet out by Ptolemy, and other ancient writers, extended northward as far as the ocean, whereby Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, were included; and ſouthward it was bounded by the Danube; ſo that Auſtria, Bavaria, &c. now reckoned part of it, were then excluded, as well as Alſace, part of the Palatinate, and the ſpiritual electorates; the Rhine being reckoned the weſtern bounds. The Germans afterwards poſſeſſed the latter, with the adjacent countries, and being conquered by the Romans,

Extent, bounds, and ſituation of Germany.

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Romans, were then named Germania Prima and Secunda. Germany, as it is at preſent bounded by France and the Netherlands on the weſt, Poland and Hungary on the eaſt, Denmark and the Baltic ſea on the north, and Switzerland with the dominions of the ſtate of Venice, and the Alps on the ſouth, is ſituated between 45 deg. 12 min. and 55 deg. of latitude, and between 6 deg. and 19 deg. 45 min. of longitde; extending from north to ſouth, that is, from Stralſund, in Pomerania, to the frontiers of Carniola and Iſtria, one hundred and fifty German leagues, or ſix hundred Engliſh miles; and in breadth, from the town of Spa, in the weſt, to the confines of Poland, in the eaſt, about five hundred Engliſh miles.

Soil, climate, produce, &c.

The ſoil is exceeding fruitful, eſpecially on the banks of the Rhine and the Danube, where alſo the air is very temperate; but in the northern parts it is cold, and the ground leſs fruitful. In general, this country and Poland are ſo like to Great Britain, both in climate and ſoil, that no countries in Europe agree better with the Engliſh conſtitutions. Beſides great plenty of corn, cattle, ſheep, wool, cloth, horſes, &c. the earth alſo affords mines of divers ſorts of metals and minerals, as iron, bitumen, nitre, ocre, copper, tin, lead, and even ſilver in ſome parts; alum, vitrol, quickſilver, ſalt, coal, terra ſigillata, diamonds, agates, cryſtals, jaſpers of ſeveral colours, fine alabaſter, turquoiſe-ſtones, rubies, &c. In general the ſurface is even, and, though in ſome parts hilly, is no where mountainous, except towards the ſouth, and ſouth-weſt, where the Alps, and a few mountains in Alſace, ſerve as boundaries and bulwarks againſt Italy and France. The foreſt and waſtes yield plenty of wood for fewel and building, and abound with great variety of wild-fowl, and all ſorts of good veniſon; they alſo feed great numbers of hogs; and ſome of them, as the foreſt of Ardenne, feed good mutton. The orchards are full of our common fruit-trees; and in the ſouthern provinces there is plenty of the more delicate ſort, as peaches, apricots, figs, olives, grapes, &c. in good perfection. There are rich wines, of which the Rheniſh and Moſelle, in particular, are exported in great quantities to foreign nations; and are not only equal, but preferable to ſome of the wines in Italy. The very mountains of the Alps, on the German ſide, are in many places, cultivated to the top, and the vallies abound with paſtures and vines. In ſhort, no country, perhaps, in the world abounds with ſuch variety of every thing conducive to the comfort of life; and,

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though others may exceed it in the goodneſs of ſome particular articles, yet even of theſe they have a ſufficiency, and might ſtill have them in greater perfection, were the inhabitants induſtrious; or, rather, did the landed men give encouragement to huſbandry and induſtry.

No country in Europe, if in the whole world, has ſo many great and noble rivers as Germany. The chief are the Danube, the Rhine, the Elbe, the Oder, the Weſer, the Mein, and the Inn. The whole courſe of the Danube, from its fountain in Swabia on the borders of Alſace, to the Black Sea, is about twenty-ſeven degrees; which, reckoning ſixty miles to a degree, is one thouſand ſix hundred and twenty miles, without including its turnings and windings, which muſt make it at leaſt one third more, ſo that it may well be affirmed to be longer than the Nile in Egypt, which in many particulars it reſembles. *Rivers.*

As to the trade of Germany, that of the cities on the Rhine and the Moſelle conſiſts chiefly of wood, corn, wine, and oil; but the traffic of many of them has failed ſince the ſettlement of the Dutch republic. The chief commodities we have from Germany are linen, diaper, and damaſk, of which many thouſand ells are conſtantly imported by the way of Hamburgh. We have likewiſe large quantities of their mineral waters, and their Rheniſh wine, which laſt is reckoned the ſtaple of Germany. In return, they have from us ſome lead and braſs, much pewter; ſome of our woollen manufactures, as flannel, ſtuffs, &c. to the value of about one hundred thouſand pounds a year, all by the way of Hamburg. They have alſo from us conſiderable quantities of buttons, buckles, ſciſſars, and ſuch trinkets, with which the towns of Nuremberg and Augſburgh formerly ſupplied not only Germany, but England, and moſt other countries. The ſame may be ſaid of watches, which the Germans, ſo famous for clock-work, where at firſt wholly in poſſeſſion of; but now they prefer Engliſh watches to their own. Both the inland and foreign commerce of the country might be very much improved, were the inhabitants duly encouraged, or more attentive to their particular intereſt. By the Rhine, the Elbe, and the Weſer, it has a communication with the ocean; by the Oder, and the city of Lubeck, it may at leaſt ſhare, if not engroſs, the Baltic trade; by the Moſelle and the Meuſe, it is capable of trafficking to France; by the Danube, which falls into the Euxine Sea, it might ſend goods into the heart of Turkey, and *Trade of Germany.*

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and ſupply both the European and Aſiatic provinces of that empire; and, by means of the Adriatic gulf, it might have part of the trade of the Mediterranean and the Levant.

Germany, how peopled.

Whether Germany was peopled, as Cluverius ſays, in the 136th year after the flood, by Aſcenas, the grandchild of Japhet; or whether Tuiſco, who, ſome ſay, was the ſon of that Aſcenas, and others the ſon of Noah, was the conductor of the firſt colony hither, as Veſtegan affirms, is uncertain; however that be, Germany was peopled very early. The ancient Germans had two deities, called Tuto, or Tuiſco, and Mannus his ſon, under which names, by their ſongs and feſtivals, they honoured God, the maker of the world, and Adam the propagator of mankind; and from the name of the former of theſe two deities, Germany was called the Teutſche nation, which by the change of T for D, is now made Duytſche, and the country Duytſchland.

Temper, genius, &c. of the Germans.

The temper of the inhabitants of Germany was always reputed martial; but it is obſervable, that though they are generally of large bodies, much fleſh, and ſtrong ſinews, they want ſpirit to actuate their large bulk, and heat to concoct their phlegmatic humour, and, therefore, are better at guarding a poſt than gaining a paſs. It is true, that they formerly oppoſed the Romans for two hundred and ten years, and not long ſince the Turks; having fought many battles, and acquired great honour by the glorious victories they obtained, not only over thoſe infidels, but the French, Italians, Spaniards, and others. They are generally good-natured, free from malice and ſubtlety, much addicted to both drunkenneſs and gluttony, but not over much to venery. The peaſants are laborious, ſincere, honeſt, and hoſpitable; as are likewiſe the merchants and tradeſmen, who are alſo very complaiſant. The nobility are men of great honour, and commonly ſcholars. All the ſons of noblemen inherit their father's title, which exceedingly increaſes the number of their nobility; and the more becauſe the German ladies are generally good breeders; and by that means the eſtates of the princes are ſo divided, for the ſake of the younger children, that the principalities and ſovereign lordſhips have increaſed to a great number. All the nobility ſcorn marriage with a commoner; wherefore the younger brothers are often obliged to take to arms, or enter into orders, whereby they are enabled to keep up the grandeur of the family, eſpecially by the latter, becauſe the eccleſiaſtical preferments

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ments here are both numerous and rich. The women are of good complexions, corpulent, and more obsequious to their husbands than our women, many not sitting at table with them, and none having the upper place; they are well educated and fond of music, but more addicted to gaming than becomes their sex; but they are observed not to be very talkative. The genius of the Germans has appeared in the invention and improvement of many mechanical arts, especially clock-work. They also claim the invention of the art of printing, and of guns; and to these we may add their improvement of the art of chemistry.

History of the constitution of the German empire.

The greatest monarchy that has been in Germany was that of Charles the Great, otherwise called Charlemagne, king of France: for he was not only lord of the parts upon the Lower Rhine, and the Main, but by his arms subdued Saxony and Bavaria; and acquiring in the year 800, the honour of emperor of the Romans, resided with it here, and Germany has ever since been called the sacred Roman empire; which dignity, though but a shadow of the ancient Roman, it has ever since borne. But for the sake of greater accuracy, it will be necessary to observe, that under the race of Charlemagne, the founder or restorer of this new empire of the West, the constitution or government was hereditary and absolute, and the title of emperor and empire rather regarded Rome and Italy than France and Germany. After the death of Charlemagne, and his successor Lewis le Debonnaire, their great states were parcelled out and divided. The titles of emperor and of Italy were conferred in 840, on Lothaire, the eldest son of Lewis, and he was succeeded by his eldest son Lewis II. in 855. The others had different states: Lothaire got the kingdom of Lorrain, to which he gave his name, Lotharingia. Charles III. son of Lewis II. was king of Provence in 875. Charles le Chauve, or the Bald, the fourth son of Lewis le Debonnaire, who was already king of France, was declared emperor, as the neareſt in blood, being uncle of Lewis II. In 877, Charles had for successor his son Lewis le Begue or *the Stammerer*, who died in 879. The imperial crown passed afterwards to Charles le Gros, or *the Fat*, from the year 880 to the end of 887, when that prince fell into so strange a weakness of mind, that the grandees of Germany acknowleged for their sovereign Arnoul, natural son of Carloman, who was eldest son of Lewis I. king of Germany. The title of emperor then began to make itself known in Germany;

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for they had there kings of Italy, as Berenger, Guy, Lambert, and Lewis III. but none of them were generally received as emperor. Towards the end of the month of March, in the year 896, Arnoul received the imperial crown at Rome, and his ſon Lewis ſucceeded him both in quality of king of Germany and emperor. With this prince, who died in January, 912, ended in Germany the poſterity in the male line of Chalemagne, which was here given an account of, chiefly with the deſign to ſhew, that the empire was then ſucceſſive, and that it paſſed to the neareſt in blood from the laſt emperor. His will had the force of law; yet they were careful to conſult men that were wiſe, prudent, and intelligent in buſineſs; which ſtill makes us admire the laws that remain to us under the title of Capitularies.

Conrad, count of Franconia, was elected king of Germany in 912, without aſſuming the quality of emperor, which was diſputed till the year 964, as well as the ſovereignty of Italy, by five different princes, namely, Berenger I. Rodolph, Hugh I. Lothaire, and Berenger II.

Henry, duke of Saxony, ſurnamed the Fowler, poſſeſſed himſelf notwithſtanding of the throne of Germany, but without the quality of emperor, which he never aſſumed in any of his letters patent or diplomas; he is qualified in them by the title of king of Germany, and ſometimes by that of eaſtern France; and he is even ſtyled Advocatus Romanorum, ſignifiying *protector and defender of the Romans*. Henry dying the 2d of July, 936, Otho I. his eldeſt ſon, was choſen king in his place: but he was not crowned emperor till the beginning of the year 962. From this time forth the Germans were always poſſeſſed of the title and the imperial crown.

To begin by the conſtitution or ſtate of the empire, ſuch as it has been ſince Otho I. it is proper to obſerve that the election of the emperor was performed by all the grandees of Germany. Theſe grandees were no other than the chief officers of the laſt emperors, and the governors of provinces, who acted in Germany as the governors of provinces had done in France, appropriating their governments to themſelves and their poſterity; but always acknowleging either the kind of Germany, or emperor, lord paramount, and making no difficulty to call themſelves his firſt vaſſals.

The emperor Otho I. held the imperial ſceptre with dignity, which procured for him the ſurname of Great; he added to the title of Cæſar that of Romanorum imperator

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rator Auguſtus, as Frederic Barbaroſſa, elected in 1152, had himſelf ſtyled Semper Auguſtus. After Otho the Great, the empire languiſhed during ſome time; his ſon Otho II. lived deſpiſed, and his grandſon Otho III. converted the love of juſtice into cruelty. There was a revolution in 1105; and after the death of Henry IV. which happened the year following, a conſtitution was made, whereby it was regulated, that the children of kings, though worthy and capable of governing, were not for the future to pretend to the empire by right of ſucceſſion, but only by the way of a free and voluntary election; theſe are the terms the conſtitution is conceived in, and the ſucceſſion began then to be inſenſibly aboliſhed.

Though the grandees, conſiſting of the biſhops, the prime nobility, or the great vaſſals, had the pincipal authority in the election of the emperor; yet the people, that is, the great cities, had alſo ſome ſhare therein, not ſo much by their vote as approbation, which laſted till the middle of the thirteenth century. Then the principal princes, who about this time aſſumed to themſelves the title of electors, appropriated to themſelves alſo the election of the head of the empire.

According to the Bulla Aurea, or *Golden Bull*, this election muſt be at Francfort on the Main; but there have been emperors elected at Ratiſbon. The emperor Joſeph was elected king of the Romans in 1690, at Augſburg; becauſe the empire was then at war with France, and the armies were too near Francfort to hazard the ſolemnizing there of ſo important and auguſt a ceremony.

States of the empire and college of the electors.

The emperor being declared chief, there muſt be a corporation or body of ſtates at the head of which he is to be. This body is divided into three claſſes or colleges, viz. that of the electors, that of the princes of the empire, and laſtly, the college of the imperial cities. This diſtinction was eſtabliſhed at the diet of Francfort in 1580.

The elector of Mentz is the director of the electoral college, which conſiſts of nine electors. At what time, or by what means theſe princes firſt obtained the electoral power, is not certainly known, though it is very probable, as above hinted, they inſenſibly aſſume it themſelves. The common opinion is, that the emperor Otho III. and pope Gregory V. inſtituted them; but this is diſputed, and many learned men are of opinion, that though it be true, that from the time of Otho, the em-

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pire was elective, yet the elections were not made by these princes only, but by the great officers of the empire in general; of whom, these being the chief, and most considerable by their estates, took the advantage to overtop the rest, and assume that power wholly to themselves. This is dated from the time of Frederic II. and Conrad IV. at the death of the last of which, several elections were made at the same time, and the affairs of Germany put thereby into great disorders. At length this kind of usurpation received a fixed and permanent state, having been passed into a law by the emperor Charles IV. who made the famous golden bull, which contains the whole form of the election and power of the electors, and answers to our Magna Charta. The number of these electors was then but seven, to whom an eighth was added in the last age on the following occasion: Frederick V. count Palatine, falling into difference with the emperor, and accepting of the crown of Bohemia, in opposition to the pretensions of Ferdinand II. was by him proscribed; and being defeated at the battle of Prague, in the year 1620, was deprived of his country and honours, which the emperor bestowed upon the duke of Bavaria; but great contests and wars ensuing thereupon, it was at last agreed in the Westphalian treaty of 1648, that the count palatine should be restored to his electoral dignity; but because the duke of Bavaria could not be brought to part with his, an eighth electorate was erected for him; and the Lower Palatinate, part of his country, being restored, he has since had the title of elector palatine of the Rhine, and the eighth seat in the electoral college.

Towards the end of the last century, the emperor Leopold created a ninth electorate, in favour of the house of Brunswick Hanover, which was greatly attached to him. This house is undoubtedly one of the most ancient and illustrious of the empire of Germany; and Leopold, to acknowlege by this dignity the affection of the branch of Hanover, created, in favour of the duke Ernestus Augustus, a ninth electorate, on the 19th of December, 1692. This was notwithstanding with the extra-collegial consent of the electors of Mentz, Bavaria, Saxony, and Brandenburg; but as this affair had neither been discussed nor concluded collegially by the electors, the new elector became involved in many difficulties, even after the electoral investiture which his imperial majesty had conferred on him at Vienna. These difficulties were not

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got over till the houſe of Auſtria and the friends of that of Hanover had found means to obtain the collegial conſent of the electors of Triers, Cologne, and Palatine. Thus, after a long oppoſition, they at laſt agreed that the duke of Hanover ſhould enjoy the title of elector; and though they reſerved to themſelves the definitive diſcuſſion of the conditions whereby the new elector was to be put into the total poſſeſſion and exerciſe of the title, all was terminated to the advantage of the houſe of Hanover. But it will not be amiſs to have a competent idea of what concerns every elector in particular.

In the decline of the houſe of Charlemagne, the great officers of thoſe emperors had governments, which they made ſucceſſive and hereditary in their poſterity: the ſame was done by the French lords, who, from being only beneficiary dukes or counts of the great fiefs of the crown, made them their property. The eccleſiaſtical princes did not attempt any of the like uſurpations; their great demeſnes were from the liberality of Charlemagne, his ſucceſſors, and even from the firſt kings of Germany, and the ancient German emperors.

Elector of Mentz.

The three eccleſiaſtical electors are ſtyled arch-chancellors, which is a dignity of the ſtate, and not conſidered as domeſtic. The elector of Mentz is arch-chancellor of the empire for Germany. This dignity is purely elective, and depends upon the chapter compoſed of twenty-four canons, called capitularies, as forming particularly the high chapter. The other canons, to the amount of eighteen, are called domiciliaries; and as admitted, having produced proofs of ſixteen deſcents, they are aggregated in their turn to the number of the capitularies. The revenue and extent of the ſtates of this prince are but inconſiderable. He uſually nominates a vice-chancellor, who reſides at Vienna, to take care of the affairs of the Germanic body, which are laid before the imperial court. The city of Mentz, capital of this electorate, was formerly an imperial city; but was deprived of this advantage in puniſhment for the aſſaſſination of Arnoul of Zellenoven, its archbiſhop, which was committed by the burghers of that city in 1160. Henry II. of Wimburg is the firſt archbiſhop of Mentz, who was declared elector at the time of publiſhing the Golden Bull, and who died in 1353. The elector of Mentz accepts for his temporalities the emperor's inveſtiture as one of the great vaſſals of the empire, upon account of the fiefs he has received from his predeceſſors. He is the keeper of

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the archives and matricula of the empire, the inſpector of the aulic council and imperial chamber, and arbiter of the greater part of the public affairs of the empire. It is to him, as prime miniſter, that foreign princes apply concerning any propoſals to be made by them to the Germanic body; and to him alſo the princes of the empire bring their complaints. His uſual reſidence is at Aſchaffenburg on the Maine, above Frankfort, but rarely at Mentz. He ſits on the emperor's right hand in the diet, and had formerly the right of crowning the king of Bohemia.

Elector of Triers. The elector of Triers is arch-chancellor of the empire for Gaul. The pretenſions of the emperors formerly to the kingdom of Arles gave room to the creation of this office; but it is now without any exerciſe annexed to it. This elector, the ſecond of the electoral college, occupies the moſt ancient ſee in all Germany. The chapter of Triers obſerves the ſame cuſtoms as that of Mentz. In the aſſemblies or diet of the empire, the elector of Triers is the firſt that gives his opinion or vote; and he is ſeated in the middle oppoſite the emperor. All the fiefs ariſing from his archbiſhoprick revert to him, in caſe of the death of the feudatories without male iſſue. Beſides Triers, he has alſo Coblentz and Hermanſtein; the firſt, on the weſtern bank of the Rhine, where the Moſelle empties itſelf into that great river; and the ſecond, oppoſite the firſt, on the eaſtern bank of the ſame river. Theſe two places ſerve for the uſual reſidence of the elector, who in the wars the emperor ſometimes has with France, endeavours, as much as poſſible, to preſerve a neutrality. Baudouin, count of Luxemburg, and brother to the emperor Henry VII. appears to be the firſt of the archbiſhops of Triers, who was made an elector of the empire. He was appointed to that ſee in 1308, and died in January 1354.

Elector of Cologne. The archbiſhop of Cologne, though the third and laſt of the eccleſiaſtical electors, is notwithſtanding, one of the moſt powerful among them. He bears the title of elector of Cologne, an imperial city, ſituate on the Rhine, but independent of its archbiſhop. His uſual reſidence is at Bonn, a place of ſome ſtrength, a few leagues above Cologne, and on the ſame river. His chapter, compoſed of princes and counts, none of the degree of barons or gentlemen being received into it, conſiſts of ſixty canons, whereof the twenty-four firſt are capitularies, and are alone intitled to a vote for the election of their archbiſhop.

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This elector is arch-chancellor of the empire for the ſtates of Italy; but, as the empire now poſſeſſes nothing on that continent, his office of arch-chancellor is but titular, as that of Triers. The eccleſiaſtical princes of the houſe of Bavaria have been for ſome time in poſſeſſion of this electorate, to which are often annexed ſeveral other biſhopricks of conſequence, as thoſe of Oſnabrug, Hildeſheim, Munſter, Paderborn; becauſe thoſe prelacies being much ſought after by Proteſtant princes, the Catholics find themſelves obliged to nominate to them a prince of a powerful family, and in a condition of being ſupported, either by himſelf or the princes of his name. The elector of Cologne claims the firſt vote in chuſing the king of the Romans, and the prerogative of ſetting the crown on his head: he ſits next the emperor, on his left hand. The firſt archbiſhop of this city, honoured with the electoral title, was probable Wabramus, count of Juliers, who died in 1349.

The firſt of the ſecular electors is the king of Bohemia. This kingdom formerly had only the title of duchy, and the firſt duke, it is ſaid, was Czechus, who lived in the year 325. Others, with more probability make Primiſlaus the firſt duke in 722; it was he who built the city of Prague, and died in 745. Uladiſlaus, who died in 1092, was the firſt that was acknowleged by the title of king of this ſtate in the year 1086. After many revolutions, this kingdom came into the houſe of Auſtria by the marriage of Ferdinand I. brother of Charles V. with the princeſs Anne, ſiſter of king Lewis, who was ſlain at the battle of Mohatz, in 1526. By this alliance, the German branch of the houſe of Auſtria obtained an electorate; and this kingdom ſubſiſts in it to this day. The duchy of Sileſia, which made the moſt conſiderable and richeſt part of Bohemia, is now ſeparated from it, and in poſſeſſion of the king of Pruſſia, elector of Brandenburg. The county of Luſatia, a fief of Bohemia, belongs almoſt all of it to the elector of Saxony, except ſome diſtricts the king of Pruſſia is poſſeſſed of; ſo that the greateſt fief of this kingdom is now confined to the marquiſate of Moravia, which the emperor poſſeſſes, as heir of the houſe of Auſtria. Formerly the king of Bohemia only voted and ſat among the electors in the buſineſs of chuſing an emperor; but in 1708, a decree or imperial conſtitution was made, whereby this king has a right to

King of Bohemia.

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ſit and vote in the electoral college. This act of the diet is called Re-admiſſion, and in conſequence of it, his ambaſſador has a right to aſſiſt at all the deliberations of the empire. The king of Bohemia alſo is chief cup-bearer to the emperor, and in public proceſſions walks next to him, or to the king of the Romans.

Elector of Saxony. The electoral houſe of Saxony is undoubtedly one of the moſt ancient and illuſtrious in Germany, where it has been known even before the tenth century. It was not, however, inveſted with the electoral duchy of Saxony till the year 1423, in the perſon of Frederick, ſurnamed the Warlike, who enjoyed only during five years this great dignity, and died in the month of June, 1428. In 1547, there was a conſiderable revolution: John Frederick, ſurnamed the Magnanimous, having declared himſelf for Luther's opinions, was attacked, defeated, and made priſoner by the emperor Charles V. who put him under the ban of the empire, and diveſted him, both of the electoral dignity and the duchy of Saxony. Prince Maurice, of Saxony, John Frederick's couſin, was inveſted with them the ſame year, and dying without iſſue in 1553, left his ſtates to the prince Auguſtus, his brother. It is from the latter the houſe of Saxony deſcends, having ever ſince ſubſiſted with great dignity in the empire, and conſideration in Europe. The prevailing religion in this electorate is the Proteſtant or Lutheran. The elector Frederick Auguſtus having been elected king of Poland in 1697, embraced the Catholic religion, and his ſon and ſucceſſor the late king of Poland, abjured the Proteſtant communion at Rome in the courſe of his travels, and declared it publicly in 1717. He was not long ſurvived by his eldeſt ſon, Frederick, who died of the ſmall pox, December, 1763. The preſent elector is Frederick Auguſtus, born December 23, 1750. This elector has great privileges; beſides being, during the vacancy of the imperial throne, one of the vicars of the empire, a dignity we ſhall ſpeak of hereafter, juſtice is adminiſtered by him in a definitive manner, without an appeal to the emperor's aulic council, or the imperial chamber of Wetzlar. The ſtates he poſſeſſes as elector, are Upper Saxony, Miſnia, which he holds from his firſt progenitors, and the Upper and Lower Luſatia, which his anceſtors have acquired from the princes of the houſe of Auſtria, as kings of Bohemia. The city of Dreſden, ſituate on the Elbe, is the place of his uſual reſidence. The elector of Saxony is ſtyled grand-

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marſhal of the empire, and carries the naked ſword before the emperor.

Elector of Bavaria.

The younger branch of the Palatine houſe, or of Bavaria, called commonly in the empire Guillelmine, has been only in poſſeſſion of the electorate ſince the year 1623, after the elector palatine Frederick had accepted in 1619 of the crown of Bohemia. This houſe is inconteſtably one of the moſt ancient in the empire. The abbot du Bos, in the manifeſto or public declaration made by him at the beginning of the Spaniſh war, in favour and under the name of Maximilian Emanuel, goes ſo far as to ſay, "that we might find in hiſtory, that the houſe of Bavaria was already one of the moſt illuſtrious in Germany, when that of Hapſburg was not yet much celebrated." This illuſtrious houſe, a branch of the Palatine, was very well known towards the middle of the eleventh century, when Otho, count of Schyren and Vitteſpach, was made count palatine of Bavaria. The Lower Palatinate afterwards came to him. It muſt not, however, be ſuppoſed that Otho of Schyren cannot be traced back to more remote times. The Bavarian hiſtorians have ſet forth the great dignity and eminency of this houſe in the genealogy they have publiſhed of it. We ſee therein that it has produced kings, as well as emperors. It is from Lewis of Bavaria, raiſed to the imperial dignity in 1314, and who died in 1347, that the branch of the dukes of Bavaria deſcends. Though its poſſeſſion of the electoral dignity is dated from 1623, and the confirmation of it with the Upper Palatine, from the treaty of Weſtphalia in 1648; it was, notwithſtanding, or ought to have been, electoral long before, that illuſtrious dignity belonging alternately to the Rodolphine branch, the elder, and to the Guillelmine, the ſecond. Such was the convention made at Pavia between the emperor Lewis of Bavaria, and Adolphus ſon of Rodolphus, and brother of Lewis. But Charles IV. a declared enemy of Lewis of Bavaria, whoſe competitor he was for ſome years before, being his ſucceſſor, deprived by the Golden Bull the branch of Bavaria of the electorate, in order to appropriate it ſolely to the Palatine branch; and thereby he cut off the alternative. The treaty of Weſtphalia afterwards confirmed the houſe of Bavaria in the electorate; and though that dignity was alſo reſtored to the Palatine houſe, a difficulty ſtill ſubſiſts, which has not been entirely decided. During the vacancy of the imperial throne, the elector palatine was vicar of the empire in the principalities included

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included in the rights and privileges of Swabia and Franconia; the elector of Bavaria as ſurrogated to the rights of Palatine, pretended alſo to be vicar of the empire; but there has been not long ſince a ſort of an agreement between the two electors, in expectation of a definitive reſolution.

Thoſe two branches have produced great men, either in ſeveral kings of Sweden, or in ſome electors of the Rodolphine branch, which was veſted with the Palatine electorate; or in the Guillelmine branch, which produced the celebrated Lewis of Bavaria, who ſupported the imperial dignity with ſo much courage againſt all his enemies. We have had within this century, that reſpectable prince, Maximilian Emanuel. The emperor Leopold, whoſe ſon-in-law he was, could not forget that he had expended in the wars of Hungary upwards of three millions of German florins, which the elector Ferdinand his father had amaſſed by the neutralities he preſerved in all the wars of his time. Leopold to detach him from the intereſt of Lewis XIV. and Philip V. offered him the kingdom of the two Sicilies, but Maximilian's honour made him adhere inviolably to his engagements. Leopold was ſcarce dead, when his moſt inveterate enemy the emperor Joſeph, put him under the ban of the empire in the aulic council, contrary to the tenor of the imperial laws. The ſtates-general of Holland, who had a ſingular eſteem for this great prince, gave him the ſtrongeſt aſſurances that peace ſhould never be made, but he was entirely reinſtated, and this accordingly was effected in 1714. The emperor, Charles VII. was of this houſe; he was raiſed to this dignity in 1742. The elector of Bavaria is high-ſewer, and in public proceſſions and ceremonies carries the globe before the emperor, and the election-feaſt ſerves the firſt diſh on the new emperor's table.

Elector of Brandenburg.

Notwithſtanding the illuſtrious antiquity of the house of Brandenburg, which is dated from the ninth century, it did not arrive at its preſent grandeur, but by degrees and a ſmall increaſe. Beſides the electoral dignity which in 1417 it acquired with the marche, or maquiſate of Brandenburg, it poſſeſſes greater demeſnes than any other prince of the empire. Theſe are Pruſſia, erected into a kingdom in 1701; the duchy of Cleves, the principalities of Magdeburgh, Halberſtadt, and Minden, with the counties of Ravenſperg, and la Marck, and lately the county of Embden, and the duchy of Silefia, except ſo ſmall

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ſmall diſtricts. The perſonal accompliſhments of the preſent king of Pruſſia, his ſhare in the late wars, his conduct therein, his experience as a general, his wiſdom as a legiſlator, are all too well known in Europe to require here any particular panegyric. Juſtice is adminiſtered in his ſtates, according to the different cuſtoms of each province, from whence the parties may appeal to the elector's ſovereign council; but there can be no appeal from it, either to the aulic council, or imperial chamber. This prince's ſtates are ſituate at ſuch a diſtance from one another, that he is obliged to uſe great precautions in his alliances and treaties with the ſeveral powers. The elector is of the Calviniſt perſuaſion, but there are numbers of Catholics in his ſtates, who are more protected in them than in other Proteſtant ſtates. The Lutherans alſo are tolerated by him. The branches of the electoral houſe of Brandenburg are thoſe of Bayreith and Anſpach. Berlin is the uſual reſidence of the elector, who, as great-chamberlain, preſents water to the emperor, and in public ceremonies carries the Imperial ſceptre.

Elector Palatine.

The electoral Palatine houſe, notwithſtanding its reeſtabliſhment in 1648, loſt its precedency, being ſince claſſed in the eighth rank. We have already ſhewn its conſanguinity with the electoral houſe of Bavaria. All that now need be ſaid is, that the preſent elector, one of the princes of Sultzbach, comes from a branch of the Palatine houſe, elder than that of Bavaria. It is well known, that after Wenceſlaus, who was depoſed, Robert count palatine, was placed on the imperial throne in the year 1400; and that the branch of Deux-Ponts, the younger of that of Sultzbach, has given three kings and a queen to Sweden. The elector's country is the Lower Palatinate; his religion is that of the church of Rome; but his ſubjects are for the moſt part Proteſtants. He is ſtyled high-ſteward of the empire, and carries the crown.

Elector of Hanover.

We have already ſhewn the difficulties the duke of Hanover met with, in becoming peaceable poſſeſſor of the electoral dignity, which was juſtly due to him, if we conſider the antiquity of his illuſtrious houſe. If the emperor Leopold ſhewed his gratitude to the dukes of Hanover, by creating them electors, it may be alſo ſaid that they have not failed in making a ſuitable return to the houſe of Auſtria, whoſe pretenſions, before the war, which happened after the death of the emperor Charles VI. they conſtantly ſupported and defended as their own.

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This houſe, which retired from Italy into Germany in the tenth century, comes from the ancient houſe of Eſte; it ſoon diſtinguiſhed itſelf in the empire, where it poſſeſſed the duchy of Saxony, and even the imperial throne, in the year 1208, in the perſon of Otho IV. The branch of Brunſwick-Hanover, which is the younger, has been more fortunate than the elder branch, that of Brunſwick-Wolfenbutel, which, notwithſtanding, is at the head of the princes of the empire. In 1714, George I. the ſecond elector of Hanover, aſcended the throne of England, and greatly augmented his German dominions by the purchaſe of ſeveral principalities from the king of Denmark, who had conquered them from Charles XII. of Sweden. The elector may thus be now conſidered as one of the moſt powerful princes of the empire. He has the title of arch-treaſurer, and carries the ſtandard.

Subſtitutes of the electors. When theſe princes cannot aſſiſt themſelves in perſon at the imperial ceremonies, they are replaced by a ſubſtitute who repreſents them: thus, the elector of Mentz nominates himſelf his vice-chancellor, whom he puts in place and changes at pleaſure; but the reſt are repreſented by lieutenants in right of their titles; as the king of Bohemia by the count of Limburg, the elector of Bavaria by the count of Walburg, Saxony by the count of Pappenheim, Brandenburg by the count of Hohenzollern, and the palatine by the count of Suitzendorf.

Vicars of the empire. The elector of Saxony and the count palatine were formerly the two ſole vicars of the empire during an interregnum; but the latter having been put under the imperial ban, and ſtript of his electoral dignity, the emperor Ferdinand II. conferred it on the duke of Bavaria in 1623; and in the treaty of Munſter, in 1648, it was reſolved, "that the electoral dignity, which heretofore had been poſſeſſed by the princes palatine, was to remain to the lord Maximilian count palatine, duke of Bavaria, and his children." Hereupon the elector of Bavaria pretended that the vicarſhip of the empire belonged to him, excluſively of the count palatine. On the other hand, the elector palatine, newly reinſtated, maintained that the vicarſhip did not depend on the electoral dignity, but on that of count palatine of the Rhine, according to the ancient uſage, and the Golden Bull, chap. v. wherein it is ſpecified expreſsly, that the count palatine of the Rhine is vicar of the empire on account of his principality, and the privilege of count palatine. This prince, in virtue of the vicarſhip, has a power of adminiſtering juſtice, nominating

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minating to ecclesiastical benefices, receiving the revenues of the empire, investing with fiefs, and of having allegiance and homage paid to him in behalf, and in the name of, the holy empire. This allegiance and homage are, notwithstanding, to be renewed to the king of the Romans as soon as he is elected; but the fiefs of the princes, and those usually given with the standard, are specially reserved to the emperor alone, or to the king of the Romans; and in case of a vacancy of fiefs, the count palatine, as vicar of the empire, cannot alienate them during the time of his administration. Such is the law of the empire regulated by the Golden Bull: and the duke of Saxony enjoys the same privilege in the extent of his vicarship; for their departments are quite separate. The jurisdiction of the palatine is along the Rhine, and in the provinces aggregated to the circles of Suabia and Franconia; and the power of the duke of Saxony takes place in all the northern territories and principalities where the Saxon laws and privileges are in force.

However, the Palatine vicarship has already been involved in several difficulties. After the death of the emperor Ferdinand III. in 1657, the elector of Bavaria first disputed the Palatine's right. He opposed his competitor's pretensions; and, by the many writings published on both sides, the empire became divided in opinion. But in the election of the late emperor, Francis of Lorrain, there was a kind of partition, and each of the two electors exercised his right in a certain extent of country, which may happen again unless the diet of the empire should undertake to decide finally this matter.

Princes of the empire.

After the electors comes the college of the princes of the empire, more extensive as to number, but less powerful than the electoral college, which, with the emperor, is at the head of the Germanic body. They are divided, as well as the electors, into two classes, ecclesiastical and secular.

Archbishop of Saltzburg.

The first are at present the archbishop of Saltzburg, the most distinguished next to the three ecclesiastical electors. His revenue is very considerable. He has thirty-six chamberlains, who, as those of the electors, carry a gold key by their side. He is primate of Germany, and his chapter is composed of twenty-four capitulary canons, who have a right to elect their archbishop, as they have a right to be also elected. There are besides domiciliary canons, who become capitulary in rotation, according to their seniority. The archbishop of Saltzburg has

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has the particular privilege, which no other archbiſhop in the empire enjoys, of having the ſole nomination to the biſhopricks of Lavautz, in the Lower Carinthia, and Chiemſee, a ſmall town of the circle of Bavaria; but theſe two biſhops are not princes of the empire.

Biſhop of Bamberg. Bamberg ſits next on the bench of eccleſiaſtical princes, as firſt biſhop of the empire; he is one of the moſt powerful, and acknowleges only the pope for ſuperior in ſpirituals. His chapter is compoſed of twenty capitulary canons, who have a right to elect and to be elected. This prelate is ſovereign in his ſtates, which conſiſt of ſome portions of the territories of the four electors of Bohemia, Saxony, Bavaria, and Brandenburg.

Biſhop of Wirtzburg. The biſhop of Wirtzburg aſſumes the title of duke of Franconia, though this province depends on ſeveral ſecular princes. When he celebrates maſs pontifically, his grand-marſhal aſſiſts at it with his ſword on his ſhoulder; hence came the proverb in Germany, Herbipolis ſola pugnat enſe & ſtolâ. His chapter conſiſts of twenty-four capitulary canons, who, in order to be admitted, muſt not only make proof of nobility, but alſo undergo a ridiculous ceremony, which is of paſſing between two rows of canons, and receiving the diſcipline of rods from them on the naked ſhoulders. It is pretended that this cuſtom was introduced to hinder princes, counts, and barons, getting into the chapter.

Biſhop of Worms and Spire. The biſhoprick of Worms is one of the leaſt conſiderable in revenue; its ſituation on the Rhine does not therefore make it the more prized, no more than that of Spire, ſituate above it on the ſame river. On the leaſt motion of war theſe two ſtates are commonly ruined or abandoned, not having ſtrength enough themſelves to provide for their ſecurity.

Biſhop of Augſburg and Conſtance. The biſhop of Augſburg, though in the midſt of the empire, is not apprehenſive of the like inconveniencies; but his power, both in ſpirituals and temporals, is extremely limited, being not permitted to remain in his epiſcopal city, but as long as his chapter admits him. Auſburg beſides is a free and imperial city, holding only of the empire and emperor. The biſhop of Conſtance, on a lake of the ſame name, is not more powerful, though the biſhoprick was founded by the kings of France of the firſt race, and has a juriſdiction over eighteen hundred pariſhes. The city of Conſtance, formerly imperial, having refuſed the interim in 1548, was put under the ban

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ban of the empire, and the houſe of Auſtria, having aſſumed the property of it, ſtill enjoys the ſame.

Biſhop of Paderborn.

The biſhoprick of Paderborn was eſtabliſhed by Charmagne, who built its church in 777. This biſhoprick is almoſt ſurrounded by Proteſtant princes, whoſe endeavours to make themſelves maſters of it oblige its chapter to make always choice of ſome powerful prince who might be in a condition to ſupport and keep them independent of their enemies. The conditions for being received canon, are to have ſtudied in an univerſity of France or Italy, and to have reſided there a year and ſix weeks, without lying out of the city. Paderborn was formerly free and imperial; but having made ſome motion in the ſixteenth century in favour of the Proteſtants, it was laid under the ban of the empire, and ſubjected to its biſhop.

Biſhop of Hildeſheim.

Hildeſheim, whoſe biſhoprick is not leſs ſought after by the Proteſtants than that of Paderborn, owes its foundation to Lewis le Debonnaire, who transferred it to this city in 814; for Charlemagne had before eſtabliſhed it in the borough of Eltze. Though the greater part of the inhabitants are Proteſtants, they acknowlege the biſhop for their ſovereign as well as the Catholics. When a canon has reſided three months, he may be abſent ſix years, that is, two years for travelling, two out of devotion, and two on account of ſtudy.

Biſhop of Ratiſbon.

Ratiſbon, ſituate on the Danube, is one of the moſt ancient cities in Germany. Its biſhop, eſtabliſhed about the year 740, is prince of the empire, and holds only of the ſee of Rome in ſpirituals; but he is not maſter of his city, which was made free and imperial about the cloſe of the twelfth century. It is at preſent the place of aſſembly for the diets of the empire, and this is what makes it ſo conſiderable. The Catholics poſſeſs in it the cathedral, and upwards of twenty other churches; but their intereſt is otherwiſe ſo inconſiderable, that they are not only excluded the magiſtracy, but even the privileges of citizens.

Biſhop of Oſnabrug.

The biſhoprick of Oſnabrug was founded by Charlemagne, in 776. Its biſhop is ſovereign in an opulent and plentiful country, that extends into Weſtphalia. The Lutherans have four canons in the chapter, and the biſhop is alternately Catholic and Proteſtant; but the latter muſt be choſen in the houſe of Brunſwick Lunenburg. In this caſe the archbiſhop of Cologne, as metropolitan, ſuperintends all ſpiritual affairs, and the pope nominates thereto

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thereto an apoſtolical vicar. The preſent biſhop of Oſnabrug is his royal highneſs Frederic, ſecond ſon of his majeſty king George III. of Great Britain.

Biſhop of Munſter. The biſhoprick and principality of Munſter is one of the moſt conſiderable of the empire. Its biſhop was eſtabliſhed in 794, at the ſolicitation of Charlemagne, who endowed him with great poſſeſſions; but as Munſter was not yet built, the foundation was at Mimingerode; and in the beginning of the ninth century, the ſecond biſhop Herman, had a monaſtery built, and it is from thence that the city then forming took its name. This biſhop did not become a prince of the empire till 1246. The emperor Frederick II. made over his right of nominating to this biſhoprick by a congé d'elire, which he granted the chapter. It was in this city that was concluded, in 1648, the famous treaty, whereby the king of Spain acknowleged the ſtates-general of the United Provinces, as ſovereign, free and independent.

Biſhop of Aichſtet and Straſburg. The biſhopricks of Aichſtet and Straſburg are leſs extenſive, and contribute much leſs to the charges of the empire. The firſt, ſituate between the Upper Palatinate and Bavaria, is indebted for its eſtabliſhment to St. Boniface, archbiſhop of Mentz, who founded it in the year 748. The dignity of prince of the empire, with a ſeat in the diet, was preſerved to the archbiſhop of Straſburg by the emperor Charles VI. though the greater part of this prelate's territory is now under the dominion of France; but he is ſtill poſſeſſed of a large tract beyond the Rhine, in the empire, where his juriſdiction takes place both in temporals and ſpirituals.

Biſhop of Liege. Though the biſhoprick of Liege is aggregated to the Netherlands, its biſhop is notwithſtanding one of the moſt powerful princes of the circle of Weſtphalia. Its foundation was at Tongres, in the beginning of the fourth century, but was transferred to Liege in 709. The biſhop is ſovereign in the city, but there is ſomething of a republican government in the ſtate, which was formerly the cauſe of revolutions.

Biſhops of Friſinghe, Paſſau, Baſil, Coire, Trent, and Brixen. The biſhopricks of Friſinghe and Paſſau, in the circle of Bavaria, are inconſiderable; but they have always a rank and ſeat among the eccleſiaſtical princes, as well as Baſil in Switzerland, and Coire in the Griſons country, Trent on the frontiers of Italy, and Brixen in the neighbourhood of Carinthia and Friuli, which give to their biſhops the quality of princes of the empire, being ſovereigns

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reigns in their epiſcopal cities, and under the protection of the houſe of Auſtria, though acknowleging no dependence on it.

Biſhop of Lubeck.

The biſhop of Lubeck, though a Lutheran, has always retained his vote and ſeat in the diet, as an eccleſiaſtical prince. The houſe of Holſtein may be ſaid to have made this prelacy its property, and the election of the chapter is but a matter of mere ceremony. The city was declared free and imperial in 1181, which was renewed and confirmed in 1227. The biſhop has no temporal authority over the city, though he has always preſerved his ſpiritual juriſdiction. In the ſeſſions of the diet he is ſeated on a particular bench, ſeparate from the other biſhops.

Secularized biſhoprics.

Before the revolutions occaſioned in Germany in the beginning of the ſixteenth century, by a difference in religious ſentiments, there were ſeveral other eccleſiaſtical princes who had a vote and ſeat in the diets of the empire, but they are at preſent ſecularized, and converted into principalities, purely temporal, poſſeſſed by divers electors and other princes of the empire; as thoſe of Magdeburg, formerly an archbiſhoprick and primacy in Germany; Bremen alſo an archbiſhoprick; the biſhoprics of Halberſtadt, Verden, Merſburg, Nawmburg, Meiſſen, Havelberg, Brandenburg, Lebus, Ratzeburg, Swrem, and Camin.

Other biſhoprics.

Beſançon and Cambrai, though qualifying their prelates with the title of princes of the empire, have now neither vote nor ſeat in the ſtates; the ſame may be ſaid of the archbiſhops and biſhops of Bohemia, Silefia, Moravia, Hungary, and Auſtria; but theſe even in ancient times had no vote nor ſeat in the diet.

Grand-maſter of the Teutonic order, and grand-prior of Malta.

We muſt reckon among the eccleſiaſtical princes the grand-maſter of the Teutonic order, who votes and ſits before all the biſhops. He was formerly ſettled in Ducal Pruſſia, which is now a kingdom. Albert, of the houſe of Brandenburg, ſeized that principality in the beginning of the ſixteenth century, and eſtabliſhed himſelf in it in the year 1525, with the title of duke, after introducing there the opinions of Luther, and having received the inveſtiture of it from Poland. This grand-maſterdom underwent many revolutions in the empire, as well as the ſtate of grand-prior of Malta, who ſits alſo as prince in the imperial diets.

Abbot of Fulda.

The abbots come next in order, of whom the firſt is the abbot of Fulda, the primate and chief of the abbots,

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and prince and arch-chancellor to the empress. In the last quality he formerly believed he could dispute the precedency with the secular electors, but his endeavours were to no purpose. Though his country, or rather his states, have been ruined during the long wars of the empire, he is still, notwithstanding, very rich, and enjoys great prerogatives: it may be also said, that he is the richest of all the abbots of Europe, and that he can maintain a good number of troops. His abbey owes its foundation to St. Boniface, bishop of Mentz, who established it in 744. The city is handsome and well built, and all parts of his principality are well cultivated.

Other abbots. The other abbots are those of Kempten, in Swabia; of Elwangen, in the same circle, secularized in 1460; of Murbach, in Alsace; of the grand-prior of Malta; of Bergstolsgad, united with the diocese of Saltzburg; of Weissemburg; of Prum, united with the archbishoprick of Triers; of Stavelo, united with Malmedy, in the bishoprick of Liege. Corwey, or the New Corbie, in the circle of Westphalia, was founded in the year 823, by St. Adelard, abbot of Corbie, in France. The other prelates that are immediate, have altogether but one vote, as also the abbesses, who are represented by their deputies.

Secular princes. The secular princes take their seats after the ecclesiastical. These are principally those of Bavaria, and palatines of different branches, and of Saxony, Brandenburg, Brunswick, without mentioning many other princes who vote alternately; of this number are Mecklenberg, Wirtemberg, Hesse, and Baden.

Counts of the empire. The immediate counts of the empire are divided into four classes; namely, those of Weteravia, Suabia, Franconia, and Westphalia, and each of those classes has but one vote. The number of those counts is about a hundred and ten.

Imperial cities. The imperial cities form a third college in the diets of the empire, and are divided into two benches; namely, the branch of the Rhine, which has twenty, and that of Subia, which has thirty-six; but all of them are not of equal consequence, except Cologne, Lubeck, Frankfort, and Hamburgh, in the bench of the Rhine; the greatest part of the rest enjoy but a shadow of liberty. Ratisbon, Augsburg, Nuremberg, Ulm, and some others, are cities of consequence in the bench of Suabia; but most of those that come next are contented with enjoying their liberty. Those cities collectively were in former times so con-

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considerable in the empire, that it was sometimes apprehended they might occasion a general revolution; but the humbling of them, which was brought about by different wars, made this fear to vanish. They have but two votes in the diets, each bench one. It must, however, be observed in regard to their votes, that when the two colleges of electors and princes are agreed, the colleges of the cities is obliged to obey, and consent to their decisions, without any farther consultations among themselves.

Circles of the empire.

Besides the diets, or general assemblies, particular ones are also held in the circles. Those circles are a sort of generalities, or great provinces, wherein the princes, prelates, counts, and imperial cities that compose them, assemble to regulate their common affairs. Their establishment is owing to the emperor Maximilian I. who first, in 1500, established six of them, as those of Franconia, Bavaria, Suabia, the Rhine, Westphalia, and Lower Saxony. In 1512 he added thereto those of Austria, Burgundy, the Lower Rhine, and Upper Saxony. Charles V. his grandson, confirmed this division at the diet of Nuremberg in 1522, and since this time it has always subsisted; but, pursuant to the treaty of Munster, in 1648, the circle of Burgundy being then deemed independent of the empire, has not since contributed to its charges. Each circle has its directors and a colonel. The first call together the assembly of the states of their circle, in order to regulate therein in concert the public affairs. The colonel commands the troops, and has the care of the artillery and the necessary ammunition. The states of each circle are to contribute to the wants of the empire, whereof they are members, by a tax imposed on them for maintaining the troops and defraying other expences, in proportion to the number of horse and foot, and other exigencies.

Circle of Austria.

The circle of Austria, which the dignity of the house of Austria usually places in the first rank, comprehends the hereditary countries of that house, with the duchies of Stiria, Carinthia, and Carniola; to which are joined the county of Tyrol and Austrian Suabia, though separated from those provinces. The ecclesiastical princes of this circle are the bishops of Trent and Brixen. The secular princes are the archduke of Austria, the sole director of them; the others are the counts of Aversberg, Dietrichstein, and Picolomini; to which are added the four forest towns in Switzerland belonging to the house of Austria.

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Account of the house of Austria.

As to the original of this great and flourishing family, the disputes of various writers about it inconteſtably prove its great antiquity; and the different ſentiments that have been publiſhed of it, are pregnant evidences of a deſire to entitle many ancient and illuſtrious houſes to the honour of being allied to this. The moſt probable and beſt atteſted of theſe accounts, make Rodolph, count of Hapſburg, generally reputed the founder, becauſe he was the firſt emperor of this family, in 1273. He was deſcended by his father's ſide from the counts of Tierſteen, near Baſil, in Switzerland; and, by the mother's ſide, from the ancient counts of Hapſburg. From the time that Albert II. of this family, was choſen emperor, in 1438, the imperial dignity has continued in the houſe of Auſtria, in which the order of primogeniture has always determined the electors. Not long after Albert's demiſe, the whole monarchy of Spain fell to the ſame houſe, by the marriage of Philip I. Maximilian's ſon, to the infanta Jane, daughter of the catholic king Ferdinand. This Philip being father to the emperors Charles V. and Ferdinand I. they formed two branches; the eldeſt of which reigned in Spain till 1700, when it came to be extinct by the death of Charles II. and the younger has had the good fortune ever ſince, by conſent of the electors, to keep the imperial crown in their family. The ſaid Ferdinand annexed the kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary to the houſe of Auſtria, by his marriage with Anne, the heireſs of thoſe two kingdoms; and the late emperor Charles VI. after fourteen years war, begun by the emperor Leopold his father, and Joſeph his brother, to regain the Spaniſh monarchy, made the peace of Radſtadt, in 1714, with France; and that of Vienna, in 1725, with Spain; by which he renounced the Spaniſh monarchy, on condition of keeping the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, and the ports and places on the coaſt of Tuſcany, and that part of the Netherlands which formerly belonged to the crown of Spain. But by a ſubſequent treaty, concluded with France in October, 1735, his imperial majeſty parted with Naples and Sicily to Don Carlos, the ſecond ſon of the king of Spain, in lieu of which he had entailed upon him the ſucceſſion to the duchies of Tuſcany, Parma, and Placentia, on the demiſe of the late duke; and, in conſequence thereof, the duke of Lorrain, the late emperor of Germany, who married the queen of Hungary, daughter to the ſaid emperor, was great duke of Tuſcany.

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The Pragmatic Sanction is the name given to the diſpoſition for entailing the Auſtrian eſtates upon the female iſſue, in caſe of failure in the male. Charles VI. made one in 1726, which was then ſworn to by his own ſtates, and, in 1706, made a public law by the German diet. It was alſo guarantied by Spain, Muſcovy, Great Britain, the States General, Denmark, and at laſt by France. The tenor of this notable diſpoſition was to this effect: all the hereditary countries were formed into one ſtate, to remain for ever united and indiviſible; and were granted, on the demiſe of his imperial majeſty, to the archduchefs, his eldeſt daughter, and her heirs, and on failure thereof, to her ſiſter and her heirs; and, in default of both, the ſucceſſion paſſes to the electoral princeſs of Saxony, the late queen of Poland, as eldeſt daughter of the emperor Joſeph; thence to the electreſs of Bavaria, her ſiſter; then to the houſe of Portugal; and laſtly to that of Lorrain, or the neareſt relations of the houſe of Auſtria who ſhould offer themſelves.—But to return to the circles. *Pragmatic Sanction.*

The circle of Bavaria, of which the duke of Bavaria and the archbiſhop of Saltzſburg are directors, is ſituate between Bohemia, Franconia, Suabia, Tirol, and Auſtria. Beſides the archbiſhop of Saltzburg, the other eccleſiaſtical princes are the biſhops of Friſinge, Ratiſbon, and Paſſau, with the provoſt of Berchtolſgade, the abbies of Waldſachſen, Keyſerhein, St. Emmeran, Nides, and Obermunſter. The ſecular princes are the dukes of Bavaria and Neuburg, the prince of Sultzbach; the counts of Ortemburg, Sterſtin, Eggemberg, and Lobkowitz. Ratiſbon is the only imperial city of this circle. *Circle of Bavaria.*

The circle of Suabia, a fertile and plentiful country, comprehends for eccleſiaſtical princes the biſhops of Conſtance and Augſburg, with the abbies of Kempten, Elwangen, Lindau, Buchaw, and ſeveral other leſs conſiderable, to the amount of twenty-one, including the Teutonic commandery of Altſchauſen. The ſecular princes are the duke of Wirtemberg, the marquiſſes of Baden Baden and Baden Dourlach, with the principalities and counties of Hohenzollern and Furſtenberg, and twelve other countries of leſs conſequence. The principal imperial cities of this circle are Augſburg, Ulm, Heilbron, and a number of others leſs conſiderable. Its directors are the biſhop of Conſtance and the duke of Wirtemberg. *Circle of Suabia.*

The circle of Franconia extends not leſs than forty leagues either in length or breadth. It was anciently inhabited by the Franks, and was called Eaſtern France un- *Circle of Franconia.*

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der the firſt and ſecond race of the French kings. Pepin and Charlemagne gave their poſſeſſions in Franconia to the biſhop of Wirtzburg. This country had dukes who were kings of Germany after the houſe of Charlemagne became extinct. The princes and ſtates of this circle are the biſhops of Bamberg, Wirtzburg, and Aichſtet, with the grand-maſter of the Teutonic order. The ſecular ſtates are the marquiſſes of Culembach and Anſpach, with the counts of Henneberg, Schwartzenberg, and ſeven or eight others leſs conſiderable. The city of Nuremberg is the richeſt and moſt important of the imperial cities in this circle, the directors of which are the biſhop of Bamberg, and the marquis of Culembach, of the houſe of Brandenburg.

Circle of Upper Saxony. The circle of Upper Saxony has no imperial cities, and but one director, who is the elector of that name. Its princes are now all ſecular. Theſe are the electors of Saxony and Brandenburg, with the princes poſſeſſed of the ſecularized biſhopricks of Merſburg and Nawmburg, both at preſent united to the duchy of Saxony. There are alſo ſome titular abbots, but of the Lutheran communion. Almoſt all the princes of the houſe of Saxony have their eſtates in this circle, in which are alſo included the duchy of Pomerania, belonging to Brandenburg, and the principality of Anhalt.

Circle of Lower Saxony. The circle of Lower Saxony, formerly occupied by the ancient Saxons, is one of the moſt extenſive of the empire. Its eccleſiaſtical principalities are now reduced to thoſe of Hildeſheim and Lubeck. The ſecular princes are very powerful, as thoſe of the duchy and electorate of Hanover, the duchies of Brunſwick, Lunenburg, Mecklenburg, Holſtein, Magdeburg, and Saxe Lauemburg. The laſt is poſſeſſed by the elector of Hanover. Its imperial cities are Lubec, Bremen, and Hamburg; the reſt are inconſiderable. Its direction is alternately under the duke elector of Hanover, as duke of Bremen, and under the elector of Brandenburg in quality of duke of Magdeburg, with the elder of the dukes of Brunſwick.

Circle of Weſtphalia. The circle of Weſtphalia is conſiderable, very fertile, and one of the moſt powerful in the empire. Its directors are the dukes of Juliers and Cleves, who are ſo alternately as well as the biſhop of Munſter. The eccleſiaſtical princes of this circle are the biſhops of Paderborn, Liege, Oſnabrug, and Munſter; with the abbots of Stablo, Corwey, St. Cornelis, Munſter, and two others leſs powerful. The ſecular princes are the dukes of Juliers and Berg, at preſent the elector Palatine. The duke of Cleves

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Cleves is the elector of Brandenburg, in quality of count of la Marck, and alſo prince of Eaſt Friezland, and prince of Minden, a biſhoprick ſecularized by the peace of Weſtphalia; but the principality of Verden belongs to the duke of Hanover, who purchaſed it, in 1712, from the king of Denmark. Except the eſtates of the houſe of Naſſau, and the county of Ravenſberg, which belongs to the elector of Brandenburg, the others are much leſs conſiderable. The imperial cities here are Cologne, Aix la Chapelle, and Dormund.

Circle of the Lower Rhine.

The electoral circle, or of the Lower Rhine, has both theſe names; the firſt, as comprehending four electorates; the ſecond, as being in the Lower part of the Rhine. It is more conſiderable by its electors, than by the other princes or ſtates that compoſe it. Theſe electors are thoſe of Mentz, Triers, Cologne, and Palatine. Mentz and Palatine are its directors; and, in the other ſtates, the counties of Naſſau Beilſtein, Lower Iſemburg, and Aremberg, are the moſt diſtinguiſhed.

Circle of the Upper Rhine.

The circle of the Upper Rhine was anciently more extenſive than at preſent. Its directors are the biſhop of Worms, and the elector Palatine, as duke of Simmeren. The other eccleſiaſtical princes are the biſhops of Straſburg, for the eſtates they poſſeſs beyond the Rhine, the biſhop of Spire and Baſil; with the abbots of Fulda, Prum, and the grand-prior of the order of Malta in Germany. The principal ſecular princes are the palatine of the Rhine, the duke of Deux Ponts, the landgrave of Heſſe, the prince of Hirſchfeld, the counts of Hanaw, Naſſau Wiſbaden, and ſome others of diſtinguiſhed birth, but not ſo powerful as thoſe mentioned. The imperial cities are Worms, Spire, Frankfort on the Main, a place very conſiderable for its riches and commerce; Wetzlar, Gelnhauſen, and Friedberg, which three laſt are much leſs conſiderable.

Circle of Burgundy.

The circle of Burgundy comprehends the Franche Compté and the Netherlands; but at preſent all theſe ſtates are independent of the empire, and not being concerned with the diets, they conſequently form no circle.

Diet of Germany, how aſſembled and held.

Thus we ſee, that the diet, or parliament of Germany, is compoſed of the electors, the princes ſpiritual and temporal of the empire, and the deputies of the imperial cities. This general aſſembly of all the ſtates of the empire is ſummoned by the emperor, by letters directed to every

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member, six months before the session, informing them of the time and place. When they are assembled, the emperor, or his commissioner, proposes the matters to be transacted, which are things that concern the empire in general; such as raising money for a foreign war, and making laws which oblige all the states.

Power of the emperor, and laws and constitutions of the empire.

The power of the emperor has been so restrained by several capitularies, or agreements, between the emperor and the princes, that it is difficult to say what it is. The best account that can be given of it is, that he exercises regal authority over all Germany, except in such things as by grants of his predecessors he is restrained; the chief of which are, first, the emperor has not the legislative power. The general law throughout the empire is the civil, or Roman, mixed with the canon, and the old customs of the Germans; and, in the several states, the particular laws made by them, which firmly oblige in their respective dominions. To these are added, the statutes of the diets, by which alone any new laws can be introduced, or any law that will bind all the states; and such statutes of the diet oblige the emperor also. Next, the emperor cannot levy taxes out of his own dominions. If there be occasion for money to be raised for the service of the empire in general, it cannot be done without the consent of the diet. By the capitulary of the emperor Leopold, he was tied up from beginning a war, or making alliance with a foreigner, without the consent of the electors. By the same it is declared, that the emperor shall not deprive any prince, or state, of their dignity, or diminions, nor expel any man, though guilty of a great crime against the empire, without the diet: nor can he impose religion on any prince or state, or punish any man on that account. Except the states consent to a war, and promise their assistance, the emperor has no right to demand their help. He cannot assemble a diet without the consent of the electors, and when he grants investitures, it is in the name of the empire as well as his own. As to his own hereditary dominions, he may act as he pleases with respect to the particular laws there. In the empire also, he only can confer honours, create princes, affranchise cities, institute universities, and give leave to build cities. He is served by the greatest princes of Germany; addressed to by the name of Cæsar, and semper Augustus; and his ambassadors in foreign courts take place of all crowned heads in Europe. He can prohibit the over-rating of the customs, to prevent the

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the ruin of the trade of Germany; which is obſerved to be the only inſtance wherein he is left to exerciſe his power for the public good.

King of the Romans.

The king of the Romans is choſen to be the emperor's deputy, in caſe of his abſence or ſickneſs, and, upon his death, to ſucceed him without other election. This was introduced in policy by the emperors, that they might, in their life-time, ſecure the ſucceſſion to their family, and procure their ſucceſſors better terms than they might be able to obtain in a vacancy. It is uſual for the king of the Romans to be firſt made king of Bohemia and Hungary; for it is to the firſt of theſe kingdoms that the electoral dignity is annexed. The archduke Joſeph of Auſtria, the preſent emperor of Germany, was, in his father's life-time, elected king of the Romans, and inſtalled and crowned with great pomp at Francfort.

Coronation of the emperor.

The emperors are ſeldom crowned the ſame time they are choſen. The elector of Mentz, or his vice-chancellor, directs the ceremony, which, among other particulars, is performed with Charlemagne's crown, and the ancient imperial robes.

Matricula-tion of the empire.

According to a conſtitution of Charles V. every ſtate of the empire is taxed in proportion to its ability; which tax, or quota, is entered into a public regiſter, called the Matricula of the empire, and kept in the office of the elector of Mentz, the chancellor of the empire. There it is, that a prince, or other lord, and ſuch city as the emperor makes a member of the empire, is obliged to be matriculated, with the conſent of the college and circle to which they are to be aggregated. This conſtitution was eſtabliſhed, not only for maintaining the forces of the empire, but for its other neceſſities. It was regulated at the rate of a certain number of horſe and foot, or a ſum of money to be paid monthly, by the name of the Roman months; becauſe formerly the ſtates of the empire were obliged to raiſe twenty thouſand foot and four thouſand horſe, which they kept in pay, to accompany the emperor to Rome, when he went to receive the crown; and ſuch as were not able to furniſh their quota in troops, did it in money. This contingent was ſettled at twelve florins for a trooper, and four for a foot-ſoldier; but as the price of proviſions was raiſed, in time this tax was extended to ſixty florins for the former, and twelve for the latter; ſo that the tax of the preſent Roman month is equal to five of the old Roman months; but the matricula not having been altered ſince Charles V. and every ſtate being taxed according

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according to the old footing, this deficiency was supplied, without derogating from the matricula, by augmenting the number of the months, in proportion to the levies required, and other neceſſary demands.

The total of the matricula is, in horſe, two thouſand five hundred and twenty-eight; in foot, twelve thouſand three hundred and ſixty; in florins, ſeventy-ſeven thouſand four hundred and ſeven. The eccleſiaſtical electors, with the other eccleſiaſtical princes, are able to raiſe ſeventy-four thouſand five hundred men; and the emperor, ſecular electors, and other ſecular princes, three hundred ſeventy-nine thouſand. By the total, therefore, of the forces of the empire, which is four hundred fifty-three thouſand five hundred men, and by other particulars, it appears, that the emperor and the empire make the moſt potent government in Europe, when they have a good underſtanding with one another.

SECT. IX.

Of Carniola, Croatia, Sclavonia, Hungary, Tranſylvania, and the Turkiſh Dominions in Europe.

Some of the dominions of the houſe of Auſtria, out of Germany.

ADJOINING to the Venetian territories, and extending to Turkey in Europe, are ſome of the dominions of the houſe of Auſtria, conſiſting of Carniola, Croatia, Sclavonia, Hungary, and Tranſylvania.

CARNIOLA

Port of Trieſte.

IS included in the circle of Auſtria; but the chief place of note, lying on the confines of Carniola, and on the coaſt, is Trieſte, a port-town of Iſtria, ſituate on the gulf of Venice. Great quantities of ſalt are made here, and exported; and the neighbouring country produces good wine, called by the Germans reinfal, which the Venetians buy cheap, and ſell for exportation. The harbour is large, but is only frequented by ſmall veſſels, juſt to croſs over to Venice; though the late emperor Charles VI. who had no other ſea-port in all his hereditary dominions before the treaty of peace at Raſtadt, which threw Italy, Sicily, and the Spaniſh Netherlands, into his hands, made this a free port, and gave great encouragement to the ſhips and merchants of all nations to come to it, deſigning to make it the center of the Auſtrian commerce in theſe parts

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parts of the world. But the merchants of Trieſte not having a ſtock, the Venetians themſelves came among them, and carried on that trade for them, by which they were ſo ſanguine at one time, as to think of ſupplanting even Venice itſelf: for from this port the Venetian merchants ſtruck into a new commerce, by the river Save to Belgrade, and thence to Sinope in the Black Sea, and likewiſe to Conſtantinople. But the moſt that it appears the Auſtrians have done yet here, is to ſend ſome ſhips among the Archipelago iſlands, from whence they bring back wines, cotton yarn, fruits, ſome ſilk, grogram yarn, camel's hair, and ſuch goods. The great misfortune they laboured under, for carrying on the great trade promiſed from this port was, that they had no fund of goods for exportation, either of their produce or manufacture; the chief they could export of any value being the wrought iron made in Carinthia, Styria, and the adjacent countries; which, indeed, is of great ſervice to the Venetians, becauſe they have no iron-works near them. Upon the whole, therefore, the trade of this new free port is not likely to anſwer the end propoſed; yet the merchants keep up their expectations of trade, and ſome time ago talked of erecting manufactures of wool and ſilk, that they might have ſomething more to export beſides iron. However, the houſe of Auſtria have a noble revenue from the rich wine made and ſold at Proſeg, which is about ſeven miles north-weſt of Trieſte.

CROATIA

WAS once divided between the Hungarians and Turks, but is ſince ſubject for the moſt part to the houſe of Auſtria. The preſent boundaries of this province are the river Save on the north and north-eaſt, which parts it from Sclavonia; Boſnia on the eaſt, Carniola on the weſt, and Morlachia on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt. It is above eighty miles in length either way. It pays above twice the ſum Sclavonia does to the emperor's extraordinary ſubſidies. The ſoil is fruitful in wine and oil, as well as all neceſſaries for life, where it is cultivated; but being a frontier province, like Sclavonia, labours under the ſame inconveniencies. The people, called Croats, are of a good ſtature, valiant, hardy, and good ſoldiers, eſpecially the horſemen, who are ſo famous, that they are entertained in moſt of the courts of Germany, as their horſe-guards. *Croatia.*

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SCLAVONIA.

SCLAVONIA, including Ratzia, is bounded by the rivers Drave and Danube, which ſeparate it from Hungary; on the north-eaſt by the river Save, which divides it from the Turkiſh provinces of Servia and Boſnia on the ſouth-weſt; and by Croatia and the country of Cilley on the weſt, being two hundred miles long, and ſixty miles broad. It is a fine level fruitful country, where cultivated; but having been for many years a frontier province againſt Turkey, and ſubject to the ravages of the Chriſtian as well as the Turkiſh armies, it has produced but little corn or wine. The chief town is Poſega. The Ratzians inhabit the eaſtern diviſion of the country; and the natives in general are of good ſtature, a brave hardy race, ſoldiers from their cradles, their country having been long the ſeat of war.

The ancient Sclavonia contained many large countries. Some have extended it from the Adriatic to the Euxine ſea. It it ſaid to have taken its name from the Sclavi, a Scythian nation, which ſubdued Greece as well as this country, in the reign of the emperor Juſtinian. The Venetians made a conqueſt of Sclavonia, and compelled the natives to ſubmit to the vileſt drudgeries, inſomuch that ſome derive the word *ſlave* from this people, thus oppreſſed and abuſed by their conquerors. The Hungarians and Venetians poſſeſſed this country alternately. The king of Hungary was ſovereign of Sclavonia, when Solyman the Magnificent invaded and reduced it in 1540; and the Turks remained poſſeſſed of it till the year 1687, ſoon after which they loſt this, and all the territories the Auſtrians poſſeſs north of the Save and Danube.

Kingdom of HUNGARY.

THE kingdom of Hungary is ſituate between 16 and 23 degrees of eaſt longitude from London, and between 45 and 49 degrees of north latitude, bounded by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland on the north; by Tranſylvania and Wallachia on the eaſt; by the river Drave, which ſeparates it from Sclavonia on the ſouth; and by Auſtria and Moravia on the weſt. The country abounds with mines of gold, ſilver, and other metals, as alſo pits of ſalt. No ſoil is ſcarce more fruitful

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ful in general. It produces good corn in ſuch plenty, that it is ſix times as cheap as in England. Their grapes are large and luſcious, and their wines, particularly thoſe of Tockay, preferred to any in Europe. They have great plenty of graſs and cattle, of which latter they ſend incredible numbers to Germany, not leſs than eighty thouſand in a year. Among other medicinal plants they have rhubarb. Their breed of buffaloes is very good, which ſerve them in ploughing and huſbandry. Their horſes are ſwift, but not large, and therefore more uſed for riding than draught. They have ſuch numbers, that their kings have brought fifty thouſand into the field. Here is abundance of deer, wild fowl, and other game, which every body has the privilege of taking, ſo that they are the common food of the very boors. They have no great foreign commerce, beſides the exportation of their cattle and wines; and no other manufactures of conſequence, beſides thoſe of copper and other hardwares, though the late queen of Hungary greatly encouraged divers capital manufactures, which are likely to prove very proſperous. No country produces ſo many metals as this, tin excepted; and in ſome parts are found even diamonds and other precious ſtones. The peaſants, even as they till the ground, ſometimes find grains of gold. They have likewiſe great plenty of white, red, and black marble, and ſome fine porphyry. This country abounds alſo with ſalubrious hot baths and fountains; and ſome of them are of vitriolic, petrifying, and other peculiar qualities. Its air is temperate, but in the ſummer the days are exceſſive hot, and the nights as cold. Its many marſhes and lakes render it frequently unwholſome; and its waters, except thoſe of the Danube, are ſtinking; but they are all well ſtocked with fiſh, eſpecially the Tibiſcus, where one thouſand carp have been ſold for a crown, and in ſome places they throw their fiſh to the hogs. This prolific quality of the rivers is aſcribed to the hot exhalations that riſe every where out of the ſulphureous ſoil, eſpecially in the ſouth part.

The Huns, a Scythian nation, poſſeſſed themſelves of this country in the third century, and communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. It was at firſt divided into many little principalities and ſtates, which at length united under one head, who had the title of duke. The laſt of theſe dukes was Geyſa, who, becoming a proſelyte to Chriſtianity, was baptized; after which he reſigned the government to his ſon Stephen,

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phen, who took the title of king in the year 1000. It was an elective kingdom many years, but generally in one family, and the conſtitution of the government was a limited monarchy. Charles Robert aſcended the throne in 1310, and ſubdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces, which he annexed to his dominions, ſome whereof the Venetians recovered from him. The Turks invaded Hungary in the fifteenth century, in the reign of Ladiſlaus an infant king; but were bravely repulſed by the celebrated Hunniades, who was regent of the kingdom during the minority of Ladiſlaus. On the death of Ladiſlaus, the Hungarians, in gratitude for the father's ſervices, elected Mathius Corvinus, the ſon of Hunniades, their king, in 1458. Lodovick, king of Hungary, engaging Solyman, emperor of the Turks, with very unequal numbers, was defeated and killed in battle, in 1526, and great part of Hungary loſt. John, waywode of Tranſylvania, aſcended the throne of Hungary the ſame year; but was depoſed by Ferdinand, brother of the emperor Charles V. Solyman reſtored king John; and at this time began the wars between the German and Turkiſh emperors, for the dominion of Hungary, which laſted near two hundred years. Ferdinand, archduke of Auſtria, was advanced to the throne of Hungary in 1527; and the Auſtrians have been able to influence the elections in ſuch a manner, as to keep the crown in their family ever ſince; ſo that the kingdom, from being elective is now become an abſolute hereditary monarchy. The emperor Charles VI. procuring it to be ſettled on his female iſſue, in default of males, his eldeſt daughter, the late empreſs-queen, enjoyed it to her death, and was ſucceeded by her ſon the preſent emperor. The Hungarians are a brave and warlike people, and their country has long ſtood as a barrier againſt the Turks. Their troopers are called huſſars, and their foot heydukes; and the inſurgents are a militia that are raiſed on the laſt neceſſity.

TRANSYLVANIA.

TRANSYLVANIA is a principality bounded by the Carpathean mountains, which divide it from Poland on the north; by the Iron-gate mountains, which divide it from Turkey on the ſouth; and by Hungary on the weſt. The country is very mountainous, and covered with woods, as the frontiers towards Turkey alſo are, from whence the Latin name of Tranſylvania was given it. The air is warm, but not ſo unhealthy as that of Hungary. The

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ſoil is fruitful, abounding in corn, wine, cattle, and rich paſtures; and their mines and ſands of their rivers afford gold, ſilver, iron, and ſalt. Their principal manufactures are copper and iron utenſils; their foreign trade is inconſiderable; and though the ſoil is rich, it does not yield ſo much profit to the ſovereign as might be expected, it being a frontier province, and frequently plundered by friends and foes; which is the reaſon alſo that it is not populous.

Tranſylvania was part of the ancient Dacia, which is ſaid to have been ſubdued by Lyſimachus, one of Alexander's generals. Julius Cæſar repulſed the Dacians, when they paſſed the Danube and invaded the Roman empire. Auguſtus fortified the ſouthern ſhore of the Danube, to prevent their incurſions. The emperor Trajan ſubdued them, and reduced Dacia to the form of a province. It was over-run by the Goths, on the decline of the Roman empire, and the Goths were expelled by the Huns. Stephen I. king of Hungary, ſubdued Tranſylvania, and introduced the Chriſtian religion there, in the year 1000. From that time Tranſylvania was a province in Hungary, and governed by an Hungarian viceroy, called a waywode, or vaivod, and their vaivods at length ſet up for themſelves, and aſſumed an independency. In the year 1526, two rival princes contended for this principality; one of them was ſupported by the German emperor, and the other by the Turk; whereupon this country became the ſeat of war for many years. The princes of the houſe of Ragotſki were at the head of the Proteſtant faction, and ſupported by the Turks; but being at length obliged to quit Tranſylvania by the Auſtrians, Ragotſki fled for refuge into Turkey, and at the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1699, this country was confirmed to the houſe of Auſtria by the Turks.

It is at preſent inhabited by three different people, Saxons, Huns, and Cingars, that have little relation to each other. The Saxons have near two-thirds of the country; the poſterity of the Huns are ſituate on the north-eaſt; and the Cingars, who are gypſies, live in tents, and encamp all over the country.

TURKEY in EUROPE.

THE Turks are poſſeſſed in Europe of Romania, Bulgaria, Servia, Boſnia, Raguſa, Walachia, Moldavia, Beſſarabia, Budziac, and Ockzakow Tartary, Crim and Little Tartary,

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Tartary, Albania, Epirus, Macedonia, Theſſaly, and all the ancient Greece, with its numerous iſlands in the Archipelago. Thus happily ſituated in the center of our continent, if we reckon in their Aſiatic territories, which we have already given an account of, they could not fail of acquiring the trade as well as the empire of the whole world, if theſe glorious advantages were not loſt by their indolence and inactivity, and the deſtructive maxims of their government. But though the Turks are no traders, being rather diſcouragers and deſtroyers of trade; yet, as they poſſeſs ſo great a part of the world, and ſome of the moſt fruitful countries, and productive of the beſt and choiceſt merchandizes, it will always induce the European parts of the world to ſend their merchants among the Turks, to traffic with them; and the Turks themſelves, by their haughtineſs, deſpiſing manufacturing, and not improving the product which they enjoy in many places, muſt neceſſarily be obliged to purchaſe of other nations the things they ſtand in need of; which naturally encourages the merchants of the other nations to come among them.

State of the Turkey trade in general.

Thoſe that ſettle among them from the eaſtern part of the world, are generally Greeks, Jews, Armenians, and Georgians; thoſe from the weſtern parts are chiefly Venetians, French, and Dutch, with ſome Jews alſo, chiefly Italian.

The principal places of trade on this ſide the Turkiſh dominions, reſpecting Europe, where the ſaid merchants reſide, are Conſtantinople, Smyrna, Aleppo, Alexandretta or Scanderoon, Alexandria, Tripoli, Antioch, and the iſlands on the coaſt. There are ſome Chriſtian merchants in moſt of the iſlands belonging to the Turks, as at Cyprus, Candia, Rhodes, Zant, Cephalonia, and in moſt of the inhabited iſlands of the Ægean ſea, or Archipelago. Theſe merchants are generally French, though there are ſome Jews. This commercial eſtabliſhment, by way of factories, among the Turks, taking the ſame all together, is, in one general acceptation, called with us the Turkey trade; the manner of which trade is this.

The merchants of England, France, and Holland, chiefly furniſh the Turks with fine woollen cloths, dyed ſcarlet, crimſon, purple, blue, and green; the firſt three in grain, and as rich in colour as poſſible, which raiſes their value. The Engliſh, beſides their cloth, ſend block-tin, lead, clock-work and watch-work, both in gold and ſilver; and, all put together, the value was formerly for upwards of

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of three hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, one year with another. The returns which the Franks (for ſo the European merchants are called in Turkey) make from the Turks, and which are the product of the Turkiſh and Perſian dominions, are as follow.

Raw ſilk: this, though the chief return of the whole trade, is not all the immediate produce of the grand ſignor's dominions, but of the Perſians alſo, is brought from the country where it is produced to Aleppo, and from thence to Scandaroon, where the merchants trade for it. The ſilk, thus brought raw in bales from Perſia, is ſherbaff, the Perſian word for raw ſilk, or, perhaps, for ſilk in general. When this ſherbaff ſilk is landed here, and comes into the hands of our manufacturers, it is called by a name of their own, legee. Beſides this, the Levant or Turkey merchants import another ſort of raw ſilk, which they call white, and our workmen belladine: this is ſhipped either at Cyprus or Scanderoon, on board the ſame Turkey ſhips that bring the other ſort of raw ſilk, but is produced in ſeveral diſtant parts of the Turkiſh dominions, as at Cyprus, Antioch, and Tripoli; that is, in the country adjacent to the ancient Syria, and in ſeveral iſlands of the Arches. The ſame ſort of ſilk is alſo ſhipped off at Smyrna. This iſland ſilk is generally the product of the iſlands of Andros, Naxos, Zea, Thermia, Syra, Santorini, &c. The quantity of ſilk imported formerly from theſe places, and as comprehended under the denomination of the Turkey trade, has been calculated at between three and four hundred thouſand pounds weight, one year with another, except that, upon ſome occaſions, the trade met with an interruption, as in the time of a plague and war.

The other importations are, 1. Wool and yarn; as Caramania wool, and wool of the iſlands; grogram and mohair yarn, that is, goats hair, ſpun or twiſted; cotton wool and yarn, from almoſt all the iſlands of the Ægean ſea. 2. Gums, ſuch as gum dragant, ſandarac, ſenega, arabic, ſarcocolla. 3. Manufactures, as Perſian ſilks, carpets, burdets, callicoes, from the iſlands of Siphanto, Paros, &c. cordevans, ſhagreen ſkins. 4. Drugs, dye-ſtuffs, earths, &c. as galls, from Syria; coffee, from Mocha by Alexandria, balm, natural balſam, rhubarb; from Perſia, ſal ammoniac, turmeric, incenſe, pumices; from Santorini, ſtorax; from Samos, ſcammony, myrrh, manna, galbanum, ſena, aloes hepatica, olibanum, zedoary, eſquinethes, hypoaſtri, aceatrice, oker, emery-ſtone, bolus an

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earth, adrachne, all at Samos; velani, from the island of Zea; coloquintida, euphorbium, mirabolans, frankincense, from Persia and Egypt; mastic, from Scio and Naxos, besides opium, and some other articles. 5. Liquids, as arac, orange-flower-water, vermecelli, turpentine. 6. Seeds, as worm-seed, clover-seed, garden-seeds, rice. 7. Fruits, as figs, pistachas, raisins of Smyrna, pomegranates. 8. Woods, as box and cypress-wood, fustic, ebony, walnut-tree.

These are the principal productions with which the merchants of Europe trade among the Turks. The number of drugs may, perhaps, be greater than what are here mentioned, but these are the most considerable. The chief articles are the silk which comes from Georgia and Persia, the wool, the hair, and the galls. The cotton, as well in wool as yarn, and also most of the goat's hair, is the product of the islands on the Asiatic side of the Archipelago, and those also of the European side. These serve for the bulk of the trade; the others, perhaps, are equally useful in their kind, but not of equal value in general commerce.

As the Turks have little or no trade but what is, as it were, forced by the Europeans and others, so they have but few ships, compared to the extent of their naval dominions. The chiefest of their shipping is among the Grecian islands, and these are such as belong to the Greeks. Also in the Morea and in the Black Sea they have some shipping; but, for the traffic between Egypt and the Porte, they generally hire English, Dutch, or Venetian ships upon freight.

The produce of the islands is exceeding great, and assists the Turks in making returns for the goods they buy of the European merchants; for the Turks are either such strangers to correspondence, or such enemies to all the world but themselves, that they have no such thing as exchange; so that, to balance their trade, they are frequently at a great loss, if the balance runs against them. It is true, it may be in their favour in one place, and the contrary in another, whereby they may sometimes bring one part to make good another; but they cultivate no epistolary correspondence, no regular posts going from one place to another, to adjust these things; so that most trade and business are executed by messages and expresses; and as for money returned from place to place, it must be carried all in specie: much less have they any

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aſſurences for the riſque of trade, or any of the uſual conveniencies of commerce that other nations have.

From what has been here ſaid, in relation to this branch of trade, a right judgment might be made of its importance; yet, important as it is, it has indeed languiſhed to that degree, that our Turkey merchants, who, ſome years ſince, figured at the top of the commercial world, now bow their diminiſhed heads. However, the trade is not entirely ſunk; on the contrary, we import annually from Aleppo above ſix hundred bales of raw ſilk. This alone is a great national object; for if thoſe ſix hundred bales of raw ſilk contain one hundred and eighty thouſand ſmall pounds, what a benefit do we not receive by the manufacturing of this ſilk, in the article of labour?

Conſtantinople, ſituate in eaſt longitude 30 deg. 15 min. latitude, 41 deg. 3 min. is the place where all the Turkiſh wealth and power may be ſaid to centre, as being the metropolis of their empire. It was anciently called Byzantium, and by the Turks at this day, Stamboul; but frequently, by European nations, the Porte; being one of the ſecureſt and moſt commodious harbours in Europe. It lies on the weſtern ſhore of the Boſphorus, or ſtreight of Conſtantinople, in the province of Romania. The city is built in the form of a triangle, and the ground riſing gradually from the ſhore, the whole town appears at one view from the ſea. The ſeraglio or palace is built upon the point of the triangle, which runs out between the Propontis and the harbour, and underneath the palace are the gardens, which extend to the water-ſide. It is ſurrounded by a wall of no great ſtrength about twelve miles in circumference, excluſive of Galata, and the other ſuburbs. The ſtreets are narrow, and the private houſes mean, built chiefly of wood, ſo that when a fire happens, thouſands of them are ſometimes deſtroyed; but the public buildings, palaces, moſques or temples, bagnios, and caravanſeras for the entertainment of ſtrangers, are many of them very magnificent. The chief moſque, particularly that which was formerly the metropolitan church of St. Sophia, is ſaid to be the fineſt temple in the world, covered with five extenſive domes or cupolas. *Conſtantinople.*

It would be an endleſs, if not an unneceſſary taſk to enter into a particular detail of all the countries and provinces of European Turkey; ſo that it may be ſufficient to obſerve, that they are either inhabited by Turks, of whom

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we have given an account under Aſia, or by Chriſtians, chiefly Greeks, or by Tartars.

Greeks. The Greeks, the ancient inhabitants of the better part of theſe countries, were eminent for their wit and learning, for their great actions, and for the numerous heroes that appeared amongſt them; but ſince they have been ſubject to the barbarous Turk, moſt of their fine cities have been deſtroyed, and a deluge of ignorance introduced into thoſe admired ſeats of learning and politeneſs. The Athenians retain, perhaps, to this day more vivacity, more genius, and a politer addreſs, than any other people in the Turkiſh dominions. Oppreſſed as they are at preſent, they notwithſtanding oppoſe, with great courage and wonderful ſagacity, every addition to their burden, which an avaricious or cruel governor may attempt to lay on them. They want not for artful ſpeakers and buſy politicians, ſo far as relates to the affairs of their own city. Some of their prieſts have the reputation of being learned men, and excellent preachers. There is great ſprightlineſs and expreſſion in the countenances of both ſexes, and their perſons are well-proportioned. The men have a due mixture of ſtrength and agility, without the leaſt appearance of heavineſs; and the women have a peculiar elegance of form and of manner. Some of the moſt curious remains of antiquity are to be found in Greece, and particularly at Athens, and thoſe monuments af antiquity may be truly ſaid to be capable, not only of illuſtrating hiſtory, but regulating taſte, as they afford the moſt eſſential helps for the improvement of architecture, painting, ſculpture, and all the arts which embelliſh it.

Tartars. The Tartars of European Turkey are thoſe that lie next to Poland. By their incurſions into that kingdom they have made themſelves well known, and are called Little Tartars, to diſtinguiſh them from thoſe of Aſia. Like theſe they are divided into ſeveral hords, each forming a a different nation: the Gubans, the Tartars of the Crimea, or Perecop; the hord of Ockzakow, and that of Budziack.

Beſides theſe four ſpecies of Little Tartars, there is another very ſingular one, of which it may not be improper to take notice. They are ſituated in the heart of Lithuania. Some tribes of this people formerly threatened that duchy: Vitoldus, uncle of Jagellon, a bold and haughty prince, marched againſt them and ſucceeded. He led captive into Lithuania many thouſands of thoſe Tartars

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of both ſexes. He treated them mildly, and aſſigned them lands near Vilna to cultivate, which their poſterity poſſeſs at this day. They have retained Mohammedaniſm, and all their ancient cuſtoms; but they are leſs barbarous than thoſe of the Crimea, and its neighbourhood. They love work, are very ſober, and of inviolable fidelity. The grandees of Poland are fond of having them in their ſervice.

All theſe Tartars in general, originally one and the ſame people, come into the world with their eye-lids cloſed together ſo faſt, that for ſome days they cannot open them. They are thickſet, with broad ſhoulders, and extremely ſtrong and vigorous. They have a ſhort neck and large head, a flat face almoſt round, a large forehead well ſhaped, bright eyes, a ſhort noſe, a little mouth, white teeth, an olive complexion, rough black hair, and ſcarce any beard. They clip the hind part of their head, leaving only a tuft before. They never till the ground, and are ſtrangers to all the arts of luxury and effeminacy. They know nothing of the ſciences. Their laws are ſimple, and are derived from plain good ſenſe, as much as from cuſtom. Gentle and affable among themſelees, they are ſo likewiſe to thoſe whom trade brings into their country. They have no law-ſuits nor quarrels among them. If any one has a claim upon another, he goes to one of the principal men, called murzas, who determines it without long diſcuſſion, and without formality. Prejudiced in favour of Mahommed's law, which they profeſs, they abhor all Chriſtians; and in their invaſions, covering their avarice with a religious motive, they make a merit of cauſing Chriſtians to feel all the ferocity of their character.

They are brought up very hardy. Deſtined to a life of toil, they are inured to it from their infancy. Mothers often waſh their children in cold water, mixed with ſalt, to harden their ſkins: hence, in the depth of winter, they ſwim acroſs rivers without ſuffering any inconveniency. To teach them to be markſmen, they receive no food after they are ſeven years old, but what they kill with their arrows.

Their clothing is ſheep's-ſkins. In winter, they wear the wool next to them; but in ſummer, or when it rains, the other ſide. The khan, and all his family, are clothed in ſilk, which they uſually receive in preſents from the neighbouring nations, particularly Poland; and the officers wear cloth. They wear no turban, but bonnets of the Poliſh faſhion.

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Their arms are a crooked ſabre, a lance, and a bow. They are afraid of fire-arms. They fight, at a diſtance, and even in their flight, let fly their arrows; but if they cannot avoid a cloſe fight, they uſe their ſabres with ſuch dexterity, that it is not eaſy to ward off the blows. In their flight, they are very ſwift, and their purſuers run a great riſque, not ſo much from their arrows, as from their unexpected return. They all carry a knife and an awl, to make leather ſtraps to bind their priſoners. They often poiſon the points of their arrows.

Their horſes are extremely briſk and nimble runners, and as indefatigable as their riders; but they make no ſhew: the Tartars often make them travel fifty or ſixty miles without halting. They cut the cartilage which ſeparates their noſtrils, that, breathing more eaſily, they may be leſs apt to give out, however violently they may be rode. They always lead ſeveral in their hands, and when one is tired, they ſpring on the back of another without ſtopping a moment.

The uſual food of theſe Tartars, and that of which they are moſt fond, is horſe-fleſh. Bread and mutton are reſerved for the rich, and for thoſe that live in towns without ever taking the field. The poorer ſort bake, under aſhes, cakes made of millet, barley, or other corn, which grows ſpontaneouſly. The Poles call this bread tatarka. Though ſome become ſervants to others, yet moſt of them chooſe rather to ſeek their food by rapine, than to earn it by an ignominious ſubjection. It is ſcarce conceivable, conſidering their indefatigability in war, how lazy and ſlothful they are in their families, where they ſpend their days in the moſt contemptible ignorance. When they kill a horſe, they firſt thruſt a knife into his throat, and carefully ſaving the blood, mix it with flour of millet, and make a kind of pudding, which they hold to be delicious. They afterwards cut the horſe into four quarters; the maſter reſerves one only for himſelf, and ſends the other three as preſents to his friends or neighbours, who make returns in kind.

Their uſual drink is water. In ſome parts of their country there is none, and they either have not the ſenſe to dig pits, or they neglect it through indolence. Snow, however, in the winter, ſupplies the defect. Thoſe who live more comfortably than the reſt, make a kind of drink of boiled millet; it is of the conſiſtence and colour of milk, and, drank to exceſs, will intoxicate. However, they eſteem nothing comparable to mare's milk, which

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they chiefly uſe when they croſs deſarts to make war. Being Mohammedans, they abſtain from wine, or drink it only by ſtealth; but they think the frequent uſe of brandy no breach of their laws.

When they find themſelves indiſpoſed, they open a vein of a horſe, drink the blood hot, and fatigue themſelves as much as poſſible by galloping. If any one is ſo weak that he cannot uſe this exerciſe, two of them get on horſeback, and holding him each by an arm, make him ride at full ſpeed. There are few ailments which they do not actually cure, or believe they cure, by this remedy. Without any other occaſion than to appeaſe their hunger or thirſt, when they have nothing elſe, they bleed their horſes, and drink the blood: this, likewiſe, was the cuſtom of the ancient Scythians. They all carry millet-meal with them when they go to war. They mix it with water; and this ſupports them in their painful marches, and extremely refreſhes them in the great heats.

Ever ready to make incurſions among their neighbours, becauſe they have no other way of ſupplying themſelves with what they want, they are not apprehenſive of being attacked in their turn. They truſt to the power of the Turks for their protection.

When they are preparing for an expedition, they ſend their horſes for ſome time to graze in the fields to fatten; their khan holds council with the galga, or *general of the army*; they aſſemble their chief murzas; they draw up the plan of operations, or rather of the ravages to be committed. If the khan commands in perſon, all muſt march with him; none muſt ſtay even to guard their country; nor are the infirmities of old age admitted as an excuſe. On theſe occaſions, the army amounts to one hundred thouſand men, and two or three hundred thouſand horſes; for each Tartar has two or three.

They croſs rivers in a very extraordinary manner. One gathers ruſhes or reeds, which he faſtens to two long poles, and makes a kind of raft, on which he places his cloaths and arms. He ties theſe poles to the tail of one of his horſes, whoſe mane he holds with one hand, and holding a rod in the other to guide the horſe, he ſwims with his feet, and paſſes the river quite naked. Theſe rafts, though thus made in haſte, are ſo compact and well joined, that they carry ſafely ſuch of their ſlaves as cannot ſwim.

If they have effects which water might damage, they kill four horſes that are nearly of a ſize, and preſerving

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the ſkins whole, after taking out the fleſh and bones, they blow them up like bladders, and place them on ſledges, or waggons, of which they take off the wheels. Several Tartars ſwim at the ſides to ſecure this floating machine, which is drawn by two horſes, each of which has a conductor to guide him to ſhore.

They are more eager to make incurſions in winter than in ſummer, becauſe in that ſeaſon they find, in the houſes of the peaſants, all the proviſions which in ſummer they muſt collect in the fields, and the rivers and marſhes being frozen, they can go any where without hindrance; the ſnow too renders the roads more convenient for their horſes, which they never ſhoe. The feeding of their horſes gives them no more trouble than the feeding of themſelves; they require neither proviſions nor magazines. Moſs, bark of trees, and poor herbs, are to them as good, and ſupport them as well as the choiceſt forage; and, in winter, they ſeek their food under the ſnow, which they remove with their feet.

The Tartars, in their expeditions, never follow the uſual beaten paths. They always chuſe the leaſt known and moſt difficult roads; and, to cover their march ſtill more, they make fires in their camp. By theſe means, they ſurpriſe even thoſe who are moſt upon their guard againſt theſe incurſions. When they arrive within three or four leagues of the country into which they intend to penetrate, they halt for ſome days to reſt. They then divide into three bodies, two of which compoſe the main body of the army: the third is ſubdivided, and forms a large detachment at each ſide. In this order they enter the country; the center advances in a parallel line with the right and left; but the whole marches night and day, without halting above an hour at moſt.

After marching ſixty or eighty leagues into the country, (which tract they ſpare at preſent, paſſing through it only as travellers) the two wings are ordered to diſperſe ſix leagues round, divided again into ten or twelve brigades, of above five or ſix hundred men each, and theſe into ſeveral others. As they advance, they make what haſte they can to pillage the country; and joining again by degrees, and in the ſame order in which they ſeparated, they carry the booty to the main body of the army, which, during this time, kept together to repel the inhabitants who might aſſemble to attack them. Two new corps are detached to ſcour the parts where the former had been; and in the inſtant theſe return, a third detachment

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tachment is ſent out to gather the gleaning the others may have left. Theſe barbarians ſpare none; they cut the throats of infants and old people; but men and women, boys and girls, they compel to follow them. The number of their captives has ſometimes exceeded fifty thouſand. They generally burn the houſes they have plundered, and turn the moſt pleaſant and fruitful countries into a frightful deſart.

The ſame havock which they make round the places they fix for the limits of their incurſions, they make alſo in their return in thoſe parts which they ſpared at firſt, provided they are not purſued. When they paſs the frontiers, and get to a place of ſafety, they repoſe themſelves, and divide the booty, of which one-tenth is always reſerved for the khan. They cruelly ſeparate all the members of one family; the huſband from the wife, the children from the parents, allotting them to different perſons, and ſelling them into different countries. They ſell many of them to the Turks, who employ them on board their gallies; but they reſerve the young women to be the unfortunate victims of their brutality. Though they arrive in a country all together, yet, in going back, they march in ſeveral diviſions, that thoſe who follow them, ſeeing ſeveral tracks, may not know preciſely which road they have taken. On theſe occaſions, the Coſſacks, who have almoſt as much ferocity, and no leſs love of plunder, generally lay ambuſcades for them. They wait for them in defiles, or even in the midſt of plains, where they march in tabort; that is the name they give to their manner of travelling between two rows of waggons, which incloſe them; and from thence they fire on the Tartars with ſmall-arms. It ſeldom happens but that the whole army is put into diſorder; they fly in ſuch confuſion, that one runs over another, without reſpect even to their leaders. Each runs whither his fears carry him; and if they are purſued, they gradually throw away all they carry. They ſtrew effects in the way, to amuſe the enemy; they throw away even their arms, and often, without ceaſing to run, they cut the girths of their ſaddles, and let them fall off, in order to relieve their horſes, that they may run the more ſwiftly.

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SECT. X.

Of Poland.

Preſent ſtate of Poland.

POLAND, in its preſent ſtate, preſents us with ſeveral ſtriking contraſts: the regal dignity exiſting with the name of a republic; civil laws with feudal anarchy; a rude reſemblance of the Roman commonwealth with Gothic barbariſm; and abundance united with poverty.

Nature has furniſhed the inhabitants of this country with all the materials of opulence, ſuch as corn, paſture, cattle, wool, hides, leather, ſalt, metals, and minerals; and yet they are the pooreſt nation in Europe. The chief ſource of the wealth of Poland is the ſale of the crown. Both land and water concur to invite commerce, and yet it has never appeared among them: the number of fine rivers, the Duna, the Bog, the Nieſter, the Viſtula, the Niemen, the Boryſthenes, ſerve only to make a figure in geographical maps. It has been often obſerved, that it would be an eaſy matter to join the Northern Ocean and the Black Sea by canals, and, by this means, take in the commerce both of the Eaſt and Weſt; but the Poles are ſo far from building merchant-ſhips, that they have never thought of forming a naval force to protect them from the fleets of their enemies, by which their country has often been inſulted. Their dominions are larger than France, and yet do not contain more than ſix millions of inhabitants. They leave a fourth part of their lands uncultivated, and yet the land is excellent, which makes the loſs ſo much the more to be lamented.

Poland is bounded by the Baltic Sea and Livonia, on the north; by Ruſſia, on the eaſt; by Turkey and Hungary, on the ſouth; and by Pomerania, Brandenburg, Sileſia, and Moravia, on the weſt. A kingdom of ſuch extent, being two hundred leagues in breadth, and four hundred in length, would require numerous armies to guard its extenſive frontiers, and yet it can ſcarce pay forty thouſand men. King Staniſlaus, who governed it for ſome time, and who has ſhewn that he was capable of doing in a whole kingdom, what he has actually done in a ſingle province of France: a king equally qualified for writing and acting, informs us, "that there are cities in Europe, whoſe treaſury is richer than that of Poland; and that two or three merchants of London, or Amſterdam, trade for much larger ſums than the income of all the

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the lands belonging to the republic." Such a republic can never have made the reflection, that the power of Holland was originally founded upon the art of catching and ſalting herrings.

General hiſtory of Poland.

Before the ſixth century, when the Poles were yet Sarmatians, they had no kings, but lived without government, in mountains and foreſts, having no habitations but waggons; always meditating ſome new invaſion; bad troops for foot-ſervice, but excellent cavalry. It is ſomething ſurpriſing, that a barbarous people, without a leader, and without laws, ſhould ſtretch their empire from the Tanais to the Viſtula, and from the Euxine Sea to the Baltic: boundaries prodigiouſly diſtant from each other, and which they enlarged ſtill farther by the acquiſition of Bohemia, Moravia, Sileſia, Luſatia, Miſnia, Mecklenburg, Pomerania, and the marches of Brandenburg. The Romans, to whom ſo large a part of the world ſubmitted, never penetrated into Sarmatia.

This hiſtorical paradox ſhews what can be done by ſtrength of body, a habit of living hardly, a natural love of liberty, and a ſavage inſtinct, which ſupplies the place of kings and laws. The Sarmatians were called robbers by civilized nations, who forgot that they themſelves had begun in the ſame manner.

The Poles, who took this name about the middle of the ſixth century, are far from having preſerved entire the inheritance left them by their anceſtors. It is a long time ſince they loſt Sileſia, Luſatia, great part of Pomerania, Bohemia, and all that they poſſeſſed in Germany; and they have ſince loſt Livonia, and the large plains of the Ukraine. Many a great empire has, in like manner, ſunk under its own weight.

About the year 550, Leck formed a deſign of civilizing the Sarmatians, though he was but a Sarmatian himſelf. He begun with cutting down trees, and erecting himſelf a dwelling. Other huts were ſoon raiſed round this model; the nation, hitherto erratic, became fixed; and Gneſna, the firſt city of Poland, took the place of a foreſt. The Sarmatians ſeem ſcarce to have known what eagles were, ſince we are told, that from their finding ſeveral neſts of theſe birds in the trees which were cut down upon this occaſion, the eagle came to be painted upon the Poliſh ſtandards. But theſe fierce birds make their airies only upon the tops of high rocks, and Gneſna is ſituated in a plain. Leck ſoon drew the eyes of his equals upon him, and by diſplaying talents fit for government,

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ment, as well as action, he became their maſter, with the title of duke, when he might as eaſily have aſſumed that of king.

From the time of this leader, down to the preſent age, Poland has been ſucceſſively governed by other dukes, by vaivodes, now called palatines, by kings, queens, and queen-regents, with the intervention of frequent interregna. Theſe laſt have been little better than ſo many times of anarchy. The regents had always made themſelves hated; the few queens there were had ſcarce time to ſhew themſelves; the vaivodes have always been oppreſſors. Among the dukes and kings, there have been ſome great princes; the reſt have been mere warriors or tyrants. Such will always be the fate, in a great meaſure, of all the nations of the world; becauſe it is not the laws, but men, that govern.

In this long ſeries of ages, the Poles reckon four claſſes of ſovereigns. The heads of the three firſt races are Leck, Piaſt, and Jagellon; the fourth, which begins with Henry of Valois, forms a claſs by itſelf, becauſe of the crown's paſſing from one family to another, without fixing in any.

In the year 750, the Poles had not yet examined the queſtion, "Whether a woman might govern men?" It had long before been decided in the Eaſt, that women were born to obey; Venda, however, reigned in Poland, and reigned with glory. The Poliſh hiſtorians relate, but we are not obliged to believe them, that a German prince, named Ritiger, won by the charms of this unfeeling beauty, demanded her for his wife at the head of an army; that ſhe offered him battle; that the German troops refuſed to fight in a love-quarrel; that Ritiger killed himſelf; and that Venda threw herſelf into the Viſtula, that ſhe might no more diſturb the peace of her ſubjects. Whatever becomes of the truth of this ſtory, it is certain, that ſhe would have done them greater ſervice by continuing to govern them well.

From this time, the Salic law, or rather cuſtom of France, was adopted in Poland; for the two queens that reigned there afterwards, Hedwigia in 1382, and Anne Jagellon in 1575, were advanced to the throne only by accepting the huſbands which were appointed to ſupport them in ſo exalted a ſtation. Anne Jagellon was ſixty years old when ſhe was elected, but Stephen Battori, who married her to get the crown, thought that a queen was always young.

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In former ages, other ways had been laid open to arrive at royalty. In 804, the Poles, being embarraſſed about the choice of a governor, offered their crown as a prize to the beſt runner; a practice anciently known in Greece, and which did not appear to them more ſingular than to annex the crown to birth. It was won by an obſcure youth, who took the name of Leſko. The annals of that age ſay, that he retained, under the royal purple, the modeſty and gentleneſs of his former fortune, and was fierce and audacious only when he took the field againſt the enemies of the ſtate

Almoſt all the Poles maintain that their crown has always been elective; but they are little intereſted in the deciſion of this queſtion, becauſe they enjoy the thing contended for. If it was to be decided by a ſeries of facts for ſix or ſeven centuries, it would be given againſt them; ſince it can be ſhewn, that, under the two firſt claſſes, the crown conſtantly paſſed from fathers to children, except in caſes of the entire extinction of the reigning family. It was not till the end of the ſecond claſs, that hereditary right was aboliſhed to make way for election. The form of government has alſo its revolutions. In the time of Leck it was abſolute, perhaps too much ſo; but the nation afterwards felt its own ſtrength, ſhook off the yoke of a ſingle governor, and divided the authority between twelve vaivodes, or *generals*, with a view to weaken it. But theſe vaivodes, who were exalted upon the ruin of one throne, collected its ſhattered fragments, and formed them into twelve, which, by their mutual colliſions, ſhook the very foundations of the ſtate. The nation, amidſt theſe dreadful agitations, regretted the government of a ſingle perſon, without duly reflecting on what they had ſuffered by it. But the more prudent part ſought after a man fit to govern a free people, and to reſtrain licentiouſneſs, without incroaching upon liberty. Such a one was at length found in the perſon of Cracus, who gave his name to the city of Cracow, which he founded in the beginning of the ſeventh century.

The extinction of his poſterity, after the firſt generation, put the ſceptre again into the hands of the nation, who, not knowing where to beſtow it, had again recourſe to the vaivodes, ſo lately proſcribed. Theſe laſt completed the diſorders introduced by the firſt. The Hungarians, who had long been under apprehenſions from Poland, now reſolved upon its deſtruction, and ſpread terror on all ſides by a ſudden invaſion. The chiefs

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of the nation were hated and deſpiſed, the ſoldiers had no confidence in them, and the people were plunged in deſpair. In the midſt of this confuſion, an obſcure man conceived a thought for ſaving his country: he drew the Hungarians into a narrow paſs, where the greateſt part of them were cut off. Przemiſlaus, (that was his name) became in one day the idol of his countrymen; and that wild people, who had as yet no idea of any other title to the crown but virtue, placed it upon the head of their deliverer, who wore it with equal glory and ſucceſs, by the name of Leſko II.

This reſtoration of abſolute power did not laſt long without a freſh concuſſion. Popiel II. the fourth duke from Przemiſlaus, deſervedly drew upon himſelf, by his crimes, the ſcandal of being the laſt prince of his family. Leaving no children, the moſt ruinous anarchy ſucceeded. The baſtards of the ducal family on one ſide, and the twelve palatines on the other, were employed in rending out of each other's hands the reins of government; and theſe two principal factions engendered a hundred more. Every individual flew to arms, and right was made to conſiſt in force only, courage in brutal fury, and ſafety in murder; till the nation, weary of tearing itſelf in pieces, (a thing which it had not done in a more uncivilized ſtate) ſaw the neceſſity of taking ſpeedy refuge under the government of a ſingle perſon. The candidates met at Cruſwick, a village in Cujavia; where an inhabitant of that country received them in his ruſtic cot, entertained them with a frugal repaſt, and diſplayed a ſound judgment, an honeſt and humane heart, abilities ſuperior to his condition, a reſolute mind, and a love for his country, which theſe madmen did not feel in their own breaſts. Ambitious men, who themſelves deſpair of governing, chuſe rather to ſubmit to a third perſon, who has not entered into the competition, than to obey a rival. In the preſent caſe, they determined in favour of virtue; and by this means repaired, in ſome meaſure, the miſchiefs they had occaſioned by their conteſts for the throne. Piaſt, therefore, was choſen king in the ninth century. The Poliſh hiſtorians will have it, that two angels were concerned in this event, though Poland had not, at that time, embraced Chriſtianity. What they relate of the good government of Piaſt is ſupported by better proofs.

The princes of this family, who ſucceeded one another, continually increaſed their authority, which even ſeemed to be more abſolute than ever, under Boleſlaus I. in

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in the tenth century. Till this time the ſovereigns of Poland had only the title of duke. Two powers, the emperor and the pope, were then contending for the right of making kings. The pope miſcarried in his pretenſions; and it was the emperor Otho III. who, reſpecting the virtues of Boleſlaus, inveſted him with the regal dignity, in his paſſage through Poland. One would ſcarce imagine, that with this inſtrument of deſpotiſm, the firſt king of Poland laid the foundations of a republic. This hero, after having penetrated into the heart of the empire, and extended his conqueſts as far as the confluence of the Elbe and the Sala, where he erected three columns as monuments of his glory, after having twice ſubdued Ruſſia, began at laſt to think ſeriouſly; and, conſidering on one ſide, that his enemies were ſubdued, and on the other, his ſubjects exhauſted and ruined, and their wounds ſtill bleeding, had the humanity to weep over his victories. Hitherto had reigned without a council; but he now created one, conſiſting of twelve perſons of diſtinguiſhed merit.

The nation, which had hitherto obeyed implicitly, now turning its eyes towards liberty, diſcovered with pleaſure the firſt image of it; for this council might in time become a ſenate. We have ſeen, that the Poles had long ago aboliſhed monarchy to make way for twelve vaivods; and this tranſient idea of a republic had never been entirely defaced. Though the Poliſh kings, after the reſtoration of the old conſtitution, had regularly ſucceeded one another by hereditary right, yet there ſtill remained a perſuaſion, that there were circumſtances in which the nation might reſume the crown; and it exerted this right by depoſing Mieciſlaw III. a bad prince, in the twelfth century. Inſtances of this ſort were repeated more than once in the thirteenth century.

A nation, which has proceeded ſo far as to depoſe its kings, has nothing to do but to chuſe its materials for erecting the edifice of liberty, and time will do the reſt. The baniſhment of Boleſlaus II. after the patience of his ſubjects had been exhauſted by his barbarous behaviour, was favourable enough for ſuch an undertaking, there being ſcarce any abſolute ſovereign in Europe. The nobles in France, England, Sweden, Denmark, Italy, and Sicily, confined the authority of their princes within very narrow limits. The Spaniards have not this day forgot the ancient form of inaugurating their kings: "We, who are as good as you, make you our king, upon condition that you will obſerve our laws, otherwiſe not."

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The Poles too had laid ſome reſtraints on the regal power; but this power being always ready to overleap its bounds, they ſtill thought it too extenſive, for their kings made war and peace at their own pleaſure.

In the fourteenth century, Caſimir the Great, being impatient to put an end to a long war, made a treaty of peace, which the enemy required to be ratified by all the eſtates of the realm. Being aſſembled for this purpoſe, they refuſed their concurrence; and from this time were convinced, that it was not impoſſible to eſtabliſh a republic, and, at the ſame time, to keep a king. The foundations of this conſtitution were laid even before the death of Caſimir, who having no ſon, propoſed his nephew, Lewis, king of Hungary, for his ſucceſſor. The Poles gave their conſent; but it was upon ſuch conditions as laid heavy fetters upon abſolute power. Lewis himſelf, in the latter part of his life, when he had no hopes of begetting an heir to the throne, pitched upon his ſon-in-law Sigiſmund to ſucceed him, with the approbation of the Poles, which he purchaſed by ceding to them freſh privileges: but the Poles were not contented with having in ſome meaſure diſpoſed of the crown, by their conſent being aſked; they were reſolved to ſtrike a deciſive blow, by aboliſhing the ſucceſſion. If either of Lewis's two daughters had a right to the crown, it was undoubtedly his eldeſt, the princeſs Mary, wife to Sigiſmund; they therefore rejected both her and her huſband, and gave the crown to Hedwigia, the younger, upon condition that ſhe would take no huſband but of their appointing.

Among the competitors that appeared on this occaſion, Jagellon diſplayed the luſtre of the crown of Lithuania, which he promiſed to incorporate with that of Poland. This offer was certainly conſiderable; but it would have been nothing if he had not ſubſcribed to the republican form of government. Upon this condition he married Hedwigia, and was declared king.

Firſt eſtabliſhment of the republic of Poland.

A republic was now eſtabliſhed, compoſed of three eſtates; the king, the ſenate, and the equeſtrian order. The king's portion was majeſty, power fell to the ſenate, and liberty was the ſhare of the equeſtrian order; an order including all the reſt of the nobility, and which ſoon ſet up tribunes, by the name of deputies. Theſe deputies repreſent the whole equeſtrian order in the general aſſemblies of the nation, called diets, and put a ſtop to all proceedings there, whenever they pleaſe, by their right of Veto. The commonwealth of Rome had no king,

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king, but the commons were reckoned as one of its three orders, sharing the sovereign power with the senate and the knights; and the majesty of the Roman people was extolled both at home and abroad. Poland, actuated by different principles, has placed its people upon a level with the cattle that till the ground. The senate, which holds the balance between the king and liberty, can look without emotion upon the slavery of five or six millions of men, who were much happier of old when they were Sarmatians.

While the commonwealth of Poland was yet in its infancy, Jagellon seemed to forget upon what conditions he reigned. An edict issued by him was found contrary to the oath he had taken, and the new republicans hewed it in pieces with their sabres before his face. But the reign of Sigismund Augustus was the æra when the republican pride displayed itself in the haughtiest manner.

This king dying, in 1573, without children, the Poles took this opportunity of guarding their liberty with new bulwarks. They examined into their old laws, limited many, extended some, and abolished others; and after many debates, it was agreed that the kings elected by the nation should make no attempts to get their successors appointed; that they should not so much as propose any one to the state for this purpose, and consequently should never assume the title of heirs of the kingdom; that they should always have about them sixteen persons, by way of council, without whose concurrence they should neither receive foreign ministers, nor send any to other princes; that they should not levy new troops, nor order the nobility on horseback without the consent of all the orders of the republic; that they should admit no foreigners into the council of the nation, nor confer upon them any office, dignity, or starosty; and lastly, that they should not marry, without having first obtained the permission of the senate and equestrian order.

The whole interregnum was spent in contriving how to guard against what was called the encroachments of the throne. The republican language became henceforward the prevailing style in all assemblies of state. Henry of Valois was shocked at it upon his arrival in Poland, and at his coronation, in 1574. But, a few months after, the castellan of Sandomir was deputed, with five others, to notify to him his approaching deposition, if he did not more punctually discharge the duties of the throne. Soon

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after, his precipitate flight put an end to the complaints of the nation, and to his reign together.

The Poliſh republic how conſtituted.

To theſe ſpirited attacks, made at different times, it is owing that Poland has retained royalty without fearing its kings. A king of Poland, at his very coronation, and when he ſwears to the Pacta Conventa, abſolves his ſubjects from their oath of allegiance, in caſe he violates the laws of the republic.

The legiſlative power belongs eſſentially to the diet, which the king is obliged to call together every two years; and in caſe of his failure, the republic has a right to aſſemble by its own authority. The little diets or dietines of every palatine precede the great one; and in theſe they prepare the matters that are to be diſcuſſed in the general aſſembly, and elect the repreſentatives of the equeſtrian order, out of which is compoſed the chamber of deputies. The perſons of theſe deputies, or tribunes, are held as ſacred. The old caſtle of Warſaw, in which the kings of Poland formerly reſided, is the place where the diet meets. In order to form an idea of the ſenate, which is the ſoul of this body, we muſt caſt our eyes upon the biſhops, palatines, and caſtellans. The two latter of theſe dignities are leſs known than the former. A palatine is the chief of the nobility within his own palatinate, preſides at all their aſſemblies, leads them to the field of election when a king is to be choſen, and to the field of battle, when the poſpolite is aſſembled, or the Poliſh gentlemen, in virtue of the king's ſummons to war. He has alſo a right to fix the price of commodities, and to regulate weights and meaſures; in ſhort, he is a governor of a province. A caſtellan enjoys the ſame privileges within his own diſtrict, which always makes part of a palatinate; he repreſents the palatine in his abſence. The caſtellans were formerly governors of the ſtrong caſtles and royal cities; but theſe governments are now in the hands of the ſtaroſts, who alſo adminiſter juſtice either in their own perſons or by their deputies. The ſtaroſt of Samogitia is the only one who has a ſeat in the ſenate; but there are in it two archbiſhops, fifteen biſhops, thirty-three palatines, and eighty-five caſtellans, in all a hundred and thirty-ſix.

The miniſters of ſtate have a ſeat in the ſenate, without being ſenators; theſe are the grand-marſhals, grand-chancellors, vice-chancellors, grand-treaſurers of the crown and of Lithuania; with the marſhals of the courts of Poland

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land and Lithuania; in number ten, two of each denomination, by reaſon of the union of the two ſtates. The grand-marſhal is the third perſon in the kingdom, having only the king and the primate above him. As maſter of the palace he appoints ambaſſadors their days of audience, and exerciſes an almoſt abſolute authority in the court, and for three leagues round it. He provides for the ſafety of the king's perſon, and the preſervation of the public peace; he takes cognizance of all crimes within his diſtrict, and judges without appeal; nor can his ſentences be reverſed but by the whole body of the nation. It is alſo his buſineſs to aſſemble the ſenate, and keep in order thoſe who would diſturb it; for which purpoſes he has always a body of troops at his command. The marſhal of the court can exerciſe no juriſdiction but in the abſence of the grand-marſhal. The grand-chancellor is keeper of the great-ſeal, as the vice-chancellor is of the privy-ſeal. One of them is always a biſhop, with a juriſdiction in eccleſiaſtical matters; and all anſwers given in the king's name upon public occaſions, muſt be given by one of theſe two officers. The grand-treaſurer is entruſted with the revenue of the republic, the Poles being very careful not to leave this money at the diſpoſal of the king. A vote of the whole nation, or at leaſt a ſenatus-conſultum, directs how it ſhall be employed, and the grand-treaſurer is accountable to the nation only.

There is very little reſemblance between theſe miniſters and thoſe of other courts. They are appointed indeed by the king, but the republic only can turn them out. Nevertheleſs, as they are connected with the crown, which is the ſource of all favours, and as they are men, the republic has not thought fit to allow them a deliberative vote in the ſenate.

The firſt man in the ſenate is the archbiſhop of Gneſna, commonly called the primate. By virtue of his office he is legate of the holy ſee, and cenſor of the kings of Poland; he is himſelf in ſome meaſure a king in every vacancy of the throne, during which he takes the name of Interrex; and the honours he receives are proportioned to the dignity of his ſtation. He never exerciſes his cenſorſhip but with applauſe. If the king does not liſten to his remonſtrances in private, and perſiſts in bad meaſures, it is in full ſenate, or in the diet, that the primate arms himſelf with all the power of the laws to reclaim him; and the miſchief is generally put a ſtop to.

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When the diet is not ſitting, the ſprings of government are kept in motion by the ſenate, under the inſpection of the king; but the king can neither by authority nor violence over-rule their ſuffrages. The liberty they poſſeſs is viſible even in their outward forms; for the ſenators are ſeated in arm-chairs, and, as ſoon as the king is covered, they follow his example. However, the decrees of the ſenate, when the diet is not ſitting, are only proviſional; but when the diet is aſſembled, the ſenate, together with the king and the chamber of deputies, has a legiſlative power.

The firſt thing done in a diet, is always to read the Pacta Conventa, containing the obligations which the king has entered into with his people; and if he has failed in any particular, every member of the aſſembly has a right to inſiſt upon its being better obſerved for the future. In the other ſittings, which are of ſix weeks continuance, the uſual duration of a diet, are ſettled all the concerns of the nation; ſuch as the nomination to vacant dignities, the diſpoſal of the crown lands to ſuch as have ſerved long in the army with diſtinction, the paſſing the grand-treaſurer's accounts, the diminution or augmentation of taxes as circumſtances require, the negociations with which the ambaſſadors of the republic have been entruſted, and the manner in which they have executed their commiſſions; the alliances to be formed or broken, the making of peace and war, the abrogating or paſſing laws, and the ſtrengthening of public liberty. The laſt five days, called the great days, are ſet apart for uniting all the votes. Every decree, to have the force of a law, muſt be ratified by the unanimous conſent of all the three orders; the oppoſition of a ſingle deputy undoes every thing. This privilege is conſidered as the moſt ſacred inſtitution of the commonwealth; and a ſure way of being torn in pieces would be to propoſe its abolition. It may ſometimes do good, but, upon the whole, much more miſchief. A ſingle deputy may thus not only annul a good decree, but if he has a quarrel with all, he has nothing to do but to make a proteſt, and leave the aſſembly, and the diet is inſtantly diſſolved. The remedy againſt theſe diſſolutions is a confederacy, in which matters are decided by a majority of votes, without paying any regard to the proteſts of the deputies; and one confederacy is frequently formed againſt another. The acts of theſe confederacies muſt afterwards be ratified or annulled by a general diet. All this muſt needs occa-

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occasion great convulsions in the state, especially if the army comes to meddle in the dispute.

As soon as the throne is vacant, all the courts of justice and other ordinary springs of the machine of government remain in a state of inaction, and all the authority is transferred to the primate, who, as above observed, in quality of interrex, has in some respects more power than the king himself; and yet the republic takes no umbrage at it, because he has not time to make himself formidable. He notifies the vacancy of the throne to foreign princes, which is in effect proclaiming that a crown is to be disposed of; he issues the universalia, or circular letters for the election; gives orders to the starosts to keep a strict guard upon the fortified places, and to the grand generals to do the same upon the frontiers, towards which the army marches. *Manner of electing a king of Poland.*

The place of election is the field of Wola, at the gates of Warsaw. All the nobles of the kingdom have a right of voting. The Poles encamp on the left side of the Vistula, and the Lithuanians on the right, each under the banners of their respective palatinates, which makes a sort of civil army, consisting of between a hundred and fifty and two hundred thousand men, assembled to exercise the highest act of freedom. Those who are not able to provide a horse and a sabre, stand behind on foot, armed with scythes, and do not seem at all less proud than the rest, as they have the same right of voting.

The field of election is surrounded by a ditch, with three gates, in order to avoid confusion, one to the east for Great Poland, another to the south for Little Poland, and a third to the west for Lithuania. In the middle of the field, which is called Kolau, is erected a great building of wood, named the szopa, or hall for the senate, at whose debates the deputies are present, and carry the result of them to the several palatinates. The part which the marshal acts upon this occasion is still more important than in ordinary diets; for, being the mouth of the nobility, he has it in his power to do great service to the candidates; he is also to draw up the instrument of election, and the king elect must take it only from his hand.

It is prohibited, upon pain of being declared a public enemy, to appear at the election with regular troops, in order to avoid all violence. But the nobles, who are always armed with pistols and sabres, commit violence against one another, at the time that they cry out "liberty!"

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All who aſpire openly to the crown are expreſsly excluded from the field of election, that their preſence may not conſtrain the voters. The king muſt be elected nemine contradicente, by all the ſuffrages without exception. The law is founded upon this principle, that when a great family adopts a father, all the children have a right to be pleaſed. The idea is plauſible in ſpeculation; but if it was rigorouſly kept to, Poland could have no ſuch thing as a lawful king. They therefore give up a real unanimity, and content themſelves with the appearance of it; or rather, if the law, which preſcribes it, cannot be fulfilled by means of money, they call in the aſſiſtance of the ſabre.

Before they come to this extremity, no election can poſſibly be carried on with more order, decency, and appearance of freedom. The primate, in few words, recapitulates to the nobles on horſeback, the reſpective merit of the candidates, which has already been examined in the dietines; he exhorts them to chuſe the moſt worthy, invokes heaven, gives his bleſſing to the aſſembly, and remains alone with the marſhal of the diet, while the ſenators diſperſe themſelves into the ſeveral palatinates, to promote an unanmity of ſentiments. If they ſucceed, the primate goes himſelf to collect the votes, naming once more all the candidates. "Szoda," anſwer the nobles, "That is the man we chuſe," and inſtantly the air reſounds with his name, with cries of vivat, and the noiſe of piſtols. If all the palatines agree in their nominations, the primate gets on horſeback, and then the profoundeſt ſilence ſucceeding to the greateſt noiſe, he aſks three times if all are ſatisfied; and after a general approbation, three times proclaims the king; and the grand-marſhal of the crown repeats the proclamation three times at the three gates of the camp. How glorious a king this, if endued with royal qualities! and how inconteſtable his title in the ſuffrages of a whole people!

This ſketch of a free and peaceable election is by no means a repreſentation of what uſually happens. The corruption of the great, the fury of the people, intrigues and factions, the gold and the arms of foreign powers, frequently fill the ſcene with violence and blood.

Military eſtabliſhment of the Poles.

The nobility having ſeized the reins of government with all the honours and emoluments of the ſtate, have thought themſelves obliged to defend it too, and to leave all the reſt of the nation to cultivate the lands. Poland is at preſent the only country in the world whoſe whole cavalry is made

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made up of gentlemen, of which the grand duchy of Lithuania furniſhes a fourth part; and in this cavalry conſiſts the chief ſtrength of the ſtate, for the infantry is ſcarce reckoned as any thing. This army, or rather theſe two armies, the Poliſh and the Lithuanian, have each their grand-general, independent of one another. It has been already obſerved, that the office of grand-marſhal is firſt in dignity after the primacy; but the grand-general is ſuperior in power, being unconfined by almoſt any bounds but what he preſcribes to himſelf; and this great authority is ſuſpended only when the king commands in perſon. The two armies have alſo each of them a general, whoſe functions are confined to the field, called the petty-general, who has no authority but what the grand-general chuſes to give him, and who ſupplies his abſence. A third officer of note is the ſtragenik, who commands the van. There is alſo kept up in Poland a third body of troops, conſiſting of foot and dragoons, the inſtitution of which is of no great antiquity. It is called the foreign army, and made up almoſt entirely of Germans. When the whole is complete, which ſeldom happens, the ordinary defence of Poland is about forty-eight thouſand men. A fourth army, the moſt numerous and the moſt uſeleſs of all, is the poſpolite. In caſe of neceſſity, more than one hundred and fifty thouſand gentlemen would mount their horſes, in order to ſubmit only to ſuch diſcipline as they liked; to mutiny, if they were detained more than a fortnight in the place appointed them to meet in, without marching; and to refuſe to ſerve, if it ſhould be neceſſary to paſs the frontiers. Another miſchief is, that the two bodies of troops which are its ordinary defence, the Poliſh army and the Lithuanian, being commanded by two grand-generals, independent of each other, are without that principle of union which makes forces act in concert. It has happened more than once, that when one has marched, the other has halted; they have even been known to threaten each other.

Character of the Poles.

The Poles are born ſoldiers; and though they reſemble their anceſtors, the Sarmatians, much leſs than the Tartars do theirs, yet there are ſtill remaining among them ſome Sarmatian features. For inſtance, they are frank and haughty; which laſt quality is natural enough in a gentleman who elects his own king, and may come to have that honour himſelf. They are alſo extremely paſſionate, affairs being often decided ſword in hand by the repreſentatives, in their national aſſemblies. Hoſpitality

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is a virtue much cultivated among them, and was learnt from the Turks and Tartars. The Poles are brave, robuſt, and inured to cold and fatigue; but they have departed from the ſimplicity and frugality of the Sarmatians. To the very end of the reign of Sobieſki, a few wooden chairs, a bear's ſkin, a pair of piſtols, and two boards covered with a matraſs, was all the houſhold furniture of a nobleman in decent circumſtances; and a ſuit of furs was his dreſs. Luxury began to get footing under Auguſtus II. and the French faſhions, already adopted in Germany, were added to the magnificence of the Eaſt, which diſplays itſelf more in pomp than elegance. The Poles love money, but not with a view of hoarding. Their ſtateline's is ſuch, that a woman of quality never ſtirs abroad but in a coach and ſix, though it were only to croſs a ſtreet. Theſe women, however, are far from being delicate. They mix with the men in competitions at public games, in hunting, and the pleaſures of the table; and frequently take a journey of one or two hundred leagues in a ſledge, without any apprehenſions about inconvenient lodgings, or the badneſs of the roads.

Perſons who travel in Poland find that good morals are of more value than good laws. The number of foreſts, the diſtance of habitations, the cuſtom of travelling by night as well as by day, the negligence of the ſtaroſts, with regard to the ſafety of the roads, all contribute to favour robbery and murder, and yet an inſtance of either is ſcarce known in ten years.

The extremes of liberty and ſlavery ſeem to be contending which ſhall ruin Poland. The nobility can do whatever they pleaſe; and the body of the nation groans in ſervitude. Wherever the great have tyrannically trampled upon the people, the latter have revenged themſelves by giving up their oppreſſors into the hands of an abſolute monarch. That all men are born upon a footing of equality is a truth which will never be eradicated from the human mind; and if an inequality of condition is become neceſſary, it muſt be alleviated by the enjoyment of natural liberty, and equal laws. A Poliſh noble, whatever crime he has committed, cannot be taken into cuſtody, till he has been condemned in an aſſembly of all the ſtates of the realm; which is, in effect, furniſhing him with all imaginable means to eſcape; but, whoever is not nobly born, is a mere cypher in the city, or a ſlave in the country; and it is certain, that every ſtate is undone where the plebeian has no poſſibility of riſing, but by overturning the

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the whole conſtitution. In conſequence of the ſlavery of the people, Poland has very few artificers or tradeſmen. In all their wars, they are forced to hire foreign engineers; there is no ſuch thing among them as a ſchool for painting; architecture is yet in its infancy; and theatrical entertainments they have none. They write hiſtory without taſte, know little of the mathematics, and leſs of true philoſophy; they have no public building of any note, and not one great city in all the kingdom; even Warſaw does not contain ſixty thouſand ſouls.

Dantzic, Courland, Ducal Pruſſia,

But we muſt except Dantzic, and ſome other trading towns, which are diſtinct republics, and governed by their reſpective magiſtrates; the duchy of Courland is beſides reckoned a province of Poland, but the Courlanders elect their own princes, and are governed by their own laws. They are influenced however in their choice, either by the Poles or the Ruſſians, and the latter ſeem to have the greateſt influence on them at preſent by reinſtating John Erneſt Biron, duke of Courland and Semigallia, in excluſion of prince Charles of Saxony, who was elected to that dignity, in September, 1758. As to Ducal Pruſſia, reputed another province of this kingdom, the crown of Poland acknowleged it to be independent in 1663, upon condition that it ſhould revert to it on failure of male iſſue. The elector of Brandenburg, Frederic III. duke of Pruſſia, firſt aſſumed the ſtyle of king of this country in 1700.

Kings of Poland to the preſent time.

We have mentioned the chief dukes and kings of Poland as far as the æra of the eſtabliſhment of the republic, and as far as Henry of Valois, who abdicated the crown of Poland on ſucceeding to that of France. Stephen Batori, prince of Tranſylvania, was elected in his room, in 1575. He made it a rule with himſelf to diſpoſe of all honours and employments according to merit. He reformed the manifold abuſes which had crept into the adminiſtration of juſtice; maintained peace within the kingdom, and kept in awe the Tartars, Muſcovites, and Coſſacs. His reign laſted ten years, a ſpace long enough for his own glory, but too ſhort for the good of the republic. Sigiſmund III. prince of Sweden, ſucceeded him in the throne, but did not ſupply his place, having neither the ſame great qualities, nor the ſame good fortune. He loſt an hereditary kingdom to gain an elective one. His ſons, Uladiſlaus VII. and Caſimir V. both ſucceeded him. The firſt, who aſcended the throne in 1692, invaded Ruſſia, and took the capital city of Moſcow, obliging the Ruſſians to cede the province of Smolenſko to Poland. He

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ſpent the ſixteen years of his reign in acquiring the love of his ſubjects. The ſecond, from a Jeſuit became a cardinal, and from a cardinal a king. In his reign, Charles Guſtavus king of Sweden, in one year (1655,) made an entire conqueſt of Poland, and Caſimir fled into Sileſia; but the Swedes retiring next year, Caſimir was reſtored; whereupon he entertained German forces to ſecure his poſſeſſion; but the Poles apprehending he intended to make himſelf abſolute, depoſed him. He retired into France and became abbot of St. Germain. Michael Wieſnowieſki was next elected, in 1670. In his reign the Turks conquered the province of Podolia, and beſieged Leopol; but compelling the Poles to pay them an annual tribute, they abandoned Leopol. A new war breaking out, John Sobieſki, the crown-general, gained a great victory over the Turks; but the Poles refuſing to keep the field any longer, he obtained no great fruits of his victory. King Michael dying in 1674, the Poles elected John Sobieſki their king, in regard of his ſervices againſt the Turks. This is the illuſtrious Sobieſki, a name revered to this day in Poland, who joined the duke of Lorrain, the imperial general, when the Turks beſieged Vienna, in 1683, and obtained that deciſive victory, which compelled the infidels to abandon Hungary not long after. On his death, Frederic Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, was choſen king of Poland in 1698, in oppoſition to the prince of Conti, who was proclaimed king by the French faction, but obliged to retire into France. The year following, at a treaty between the Turks, and the Germans and Poles, at Carlowitz, the Turks reſtored Podolia with its capital Kaminieck, to Poland. King Auguſtus, in 1700, having entered into a confederacy with the Danes, Ruſſians, and Brandenburghers, againſt Charles XII. king of Sweden, was defeated in ſeveral battles by the Swedes, who depoſed him, and advanced Stainſlaus Leſczinſki to the throne of Poland, in 1704. King Stainſlaus remained on the throne of Poland till the year 1709, when Charles XII. being defeated by the Ruſſians at Pultowa, and obliged to take refuge in Turky, king Auguſtus re-aſcended the throne of Poland, though he had ſworn not to diſturb Staniſlaus in the poſſeſſion of it. Dying in 1733, his ſon Auguſtus III. was advanced to the throne of Poland, by the intereſt of the Auſtrians and Ruſſians, though the French faction had proclatmed king Stainſlaus, who retiring to Dantzic, was beſieged in that city by the Saxons and Ruſſians, and eſcaping from thence, retired into France: whereupon his party

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party ſubmitted and ſwore allegiance to king Auguſtus, who died in October, 1763. This prince did not ſeem to be much in the affection of the Poles; for though the king of Pruſſia had, in the late war, plundered Saxony, and taken the capital city of Dreſden, which he kept poſſeſſion of for ſome time, the Poles made not the leaſt motion in his defence. On the 6th of September, 1764, the ceremony of the election of count Staniſlaus Poniatowſki to the throne of Poland, paſſed with the moſt perfect unanmity of the ſuffrages of the whole nation, delivered by the different palatinates aſſembled for that purpoſe; and the next day he was proclaimed by the name of Stainſlaus Auguſtus, and conducted to the court and palace through the acclamations of ſeveral thouſands of ſpectators.

SECT. XI.

Of the Ruſſian Dominions in Europe.

THE empire of Ruſſia is the moſt extenſive in the world. It meaſures from weſt to eaſt upwards of two thouſand common leagues, and upwards of eight hundred from ſouth to north, in its greateſt breadth; it borders upon Poland and the Frozen Sea; it touches Sweden and China; its length, from the iſle of Dago, to the weſt of Livonia, as far as its moſt eaſtern boundaries, comprehends near 170 deg. ſo that, when it is noon in the weſt, it is near midnight in the eaſt of the empire. What is now comprehended under the name of Ruſſia, is much larger than all the reſt of Europe, than the Roman empire ever was, or that of Darius conquered by Alexander; for it contains more than one million one hundred thouſand ſquare leagues. The Roman empire and that of Alexander contained each but five hundred and fifty thouſand; and there is not a kingdom in Europe that makes a twelfth part of the Roman empire. Length of time, and czars, ſuch as Peter the Great, are ſtill required for making Ruſſia as populous as more ſouthern countries. *Extent and boundaries of the empire of Ruſſia.*

The Ruſſian empire is now divided into ſixteen great governments, of which ſeveral contain immenſe provinces.

The neareſt province to us is that of Livonia. It is one of the moſt fertile of the north. Its inhabitants were pagans in the twelfth century. Some merchants of Bremen and Lubec traded there; and the knights of the Teutonic *Livonia.*

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Teutonic order seized upon it in the thirteenth century, and kept their ground, till Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, grand-master of these conquering knights, made himself master of Livonia and Brandenburg Prussia, about the year 1514. The Russians and Poles then began to contest the right to that province. The Swedes soon after entered it. All these powers ravaged it for a long time. It was conquered by Gustavus Adolphus, and ceded to Sweden, in 1660, by the famous peace of Oliva. Lastly, the czar Peter conquered it from the Swedes.

Government of Revel, Petersburg, and Wiburg.

Farther north is the government of Revel and Esthonia. Revel was built by the Danes in the thirteenth century. The Swedes possessed Esthonia since the country put itself under their protection in 1561. This is also one of Peter's conquests. On the borders of Esthonia is the gulf of Finland. Eastward of this sea, and at the junction of the Neva and the lake of Ladoga, Petersburg, the newest and finest city of the empire, was built by the czar Peter, notwithstanding all the obstacles that opposed its foundation. It rises on the gulf of Cronstadt, in the midst of nine branches of rivers, which divide its quarters. An impregnable castle occupies the centre of the city, in an isle formed by the great current of the Neva. Seven canals, formed out of the rivers, wash the walls of a palace, those of the admiralty, and of the yards for ship-building and several manufactures. Thirty-five great churches are so many ornaments to the city; five of which, as an example of toleration to other nations, are allotted to foreigners, whether Catholics or reformed. There are five palaces; the old one called the summer-palace, situated on the river Neva, is inclosed by an immense balustrade of fine stone all along the shore. The new summer-palace, near the triumphal arch, is one of the finest pieces of architecture in Europe. The buildings raised for the admiralty, the corps of cadets, the imperial colleges, the academy of sciences, the exchange, the merchants warehouse, and that of the gallies, are all magnificent monuments. The police, or mansion-house, that of the public pharmacy, where all the vessels are of porcelain, the court-warehouse, the foundery, the arsenal, the bridges, the market-places, the squares, the lodges for the horse and foot-guards, contribute equally to the embellishment and security of the city. It is computed that there are actually four hundred thousand souls in it. In the environs are pleasure-houses, which may justly astonish travellers by their magnificence; of one in particular the

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jette d'eaus and caſcades are much ſuperior to thoſe of Verſailles. There was nothing here in 1702: the place was an impaſſable marſh. Peterſburg is reputed the capital of Ingria, a ſmall province conquered by Peter the Great. Wiburg alſo conquered by him, and the part of Finland loſt and ceded by Sweden in 1742, make another government.

Higher up to the north is the province of Archangel, a country entirely new to the ſouthern nations of Europe. It had its name from St. Michael, the archangel, under whoſe protection it was put, long after the Ruſſians had embraced Chriſtianity, which they did not till the beginning of the eleventh century. It was not till the middle of the ſixteenth that this country was known by other nations. The Engliſh, in 1533, ſeeking a paſſage through the north and eaſt ſeas to the Eaſt Indies, diſcovered the port of Archangel in the White Sea. In this deſart there was only a convent, with the little church of St. Michael the Archangel. From this port, having aſcended the river Duina, they arrived in the midſt of the country, and at laſt at the city of Moſcow. They eaſily made themſelves maſters of the commerce of Ruſſia, which, from the city of Novogorod, where it was carried on by land, was transferred to this ſea-port. It is, indeed, inacceſſible ſeven months of the year; however, it was of much greater utility than the fairs of the great Novogorod, which ſenſibly decayed by the wars againſt Sweden. The Engliſh obtained the privilege of trading there without paying any duty, and it is ſo all nations ought, perhaps, to trade together. The Dutch ſoon ſhared with them the commerce of Archangel. Long before this the Genoeſe and Venetians had ſettled a trade with the Ruſſians by the mouth of the Tanais, where they built a town called Tana: but, ſince the ravages of Tamerlane in this part of the world, this Italian branch of trade has been deſtroyed. That of Archangel ſubſiſted with great advantages to the Engliſh and Dutch, till Peter the Great opened the Baltic to his ſtates. *Archangel.*

Ruſſian Lapland, the third part of that country the two others belonging to Sweden and Denmark, lies to the weſt of Archangel. It is a very large tract, taking up about eight degrees of longitude, and extending in latitude from the polar circle to Cape North. The inhabitants were confuſedly known to antiquity by the name of Troglodytes, and ſeptentrional pygmies. This appellation ſuited indeed men living in caverns, and generally not more than three cubits high. They are ſuch as they were then, of a tan-colour *Ruſſian Lapland, in the government of Archangel.*

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colour though the other northern people are white; almoſt all diminutive, whilſt their neighbours, and the people of Iceland, under the polar circle, are of high ſtature. They ſeem made for their mountainous country; nimble, well-ſet, robuſt; their ſkin hard, the better to reſiſt cold; their thighs and legs thin and ſmall; their feet little, to ſkip and clamber with greater facility over the rocks their whole country is covered with; yet they are paſſionate lovers of this country, which they alone can be fond of, not being able to live elſewhere. All theſe particulars ſhew, that the Laplanders are indigenes as well as their animals, and that nature has made them for one another. The inhabitants of Finland and Swediſh Lapland adored formerly an idol they called Jumalac; and ſince the time of Guſtavus Adolphus, to whom they are indebted for the name of Lutherans, they call Jeſus Chriſt the ſon of Jumalac. The Muſcovite Laplanders are now reckoned to belong to the Greek church; but thoſe who lead a vagabond life towards the mountains of Cape North, content themſelves with adoring a God under ſome groſs forms. This kind of men, few in number, have alſo few ideas, and they are happy in not having more, as then they muſt have new wants which they could not ſatisfy; they live contented, and to a great age, without ſickneſs, ſcarce drinking any other liquor but water in the coldeſt climate.

Moſcow. In going up the Duina, from north to ſouth, one arrives in the midſt of the country about Moſcow, the capital of the empire. This city was for a long time the centre of the Ruſſian ſtates, before they were extended towards China and Perſia. Moſcow, ſituated in 55½ deg. of latitude, in a ſoil leſs cold and more fertile than Peterſburg, lies in the middle of a large and beautiful plain, on the river Moſkwa, and two other ſmall ones, that empty themſelves with it into the Occa, and afterwards increaſe the Wolga. This city, in the thirteenth century, was only an aſſemblage of huts, peopled with the wretches oppreſſed by the race of Gengis-kan. The Cremelin, which was the reſidence of the grand-dukes, was not built till the fourteenth century. Some Italian architects had the conducting of it; the taſte was Gothic; the ſame then prevailed throughout Europe, as well for palaces as churches. The earl of Carliſle, ambaſſador from our king Charles II. in 1663, to the czar Alexis, complains, in his relation, that he neither found any conveniency of life in Moſcow, nor inn on the road, nor aſſiſtance of any kind. He was diſguſted to ſee that the greater part of the boyards

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boyards had no other beds than planks, or benches, on which a ſkin, or ſome other covering was laid; this was the ancient cuſtom of all people; the houſes, almoſt all of wood, were without furniture, the dining-tables without linen, no pavement in the ſtreets, nothing agreeable and convenient, very few artizans, and theſe bungling ones, and only labouring at works of neceſſity. This people would have appeared Spartans had they been ſober. But the court, on days of ceremony, appeared like that of a king of Perſia. The earl of Carliſle ſays, that he ſaw the czars and his courtiers robes covered with gold and precious ſtones. Theſe cloaths were not manufactured in the country; however, it was evident, that the people were capable of being made induſtrious, ſince they had caſt at Moſcow, long before, in the reign of the czar Boris Godono, the largeſt bell that is in Europe, and could produce, in the patriarchal church, ſome ſilver ornaments, which were not wrought without great pains. Theſe works, conducted by Germans and Italians, were tranſitory efforts; it is induſtry, and the multitude of arts continually put in practice, that make a nation flouriſhing. Poland then, and other neighbouring countries, were not ſuperior to the Ruſſians. Manual arts were not brought to greater perfection in the north of Germany, and the politer arts were ſcarce better known there in the middle of the ſeventeenth century. Though Moſcow had nothing then of the magnificence and arts of our great cities in Europe, yet its circumference of twenty thouſand paces; the part called the Chineſe town, where the curioſities of China were expoſed to ſale; the ſpacious quarter of the czar's palace; ſome gilt domes and lofty towers of a ſingular conſtruction; in ſhort, the number of inhabitants, amounting to near five hundred thouſand; all this made Moſcow one of the moſt conſiderable cities of the world. Theodore, or Fædor, Peter the Great's eldeſt brother, began to police Moſcow; he had ſeveral large houſes built of ſtone, though without any regular architecture; he encouraged his principal courtiers to build, advancing them money, and furniſhing them with materials. It is to him the Ruſſians are indebted for the firſt breed of fine horſes, and ſome uſeful eſtabliſhments. Peter, who did all, took care of Moſcow, whilſt he was building Peterſburg; he had it paved, and adorned and enriched it with edifices and manufactures; and laſtly, within theſe few years, M. de Showalow, chamberlain to the late empreſs Elizabeth, has had the honour of founding in it an univerſity.

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Smolenſko. To the weſt of the duchy of Moſcow is that of Smolenſko, part of the ancient European Sarmatia. The duchies of Muſcovy and Smolenſko, compoſed White Ruſſia, properly ſo called. Smolenſko, which belonged firſt to the grand dukes of Ruſſia, was conquered by the grand-duke of Lithuania, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, and retaken by its former maſters a hundred years after. Sigiſmund III. king of Poland, ſeized upon it in 1611. The czar Alexis, Peter's father, recovered it in 1654, and ſince this time it always made a part of the Ruſſian empire.

Government of Novogorod and Kiovia or Ukrain. The province of Novogorod lies between Peterſburg and Smolenſko. It is ſaid, that in this country was the firſt ſettlement of the ancient Sclavonians, whoſe language extended throughout the north-eaſt of Europe; they built the city of Great Novogorod, ſituate on a navigable river from its ſource. This city long enjoyed a flouriſhing commerce, and was a powerful ally of the Hanſe Towns. The czar Ivan Baſilowitz conquered it in 1467, and brought away with him all its riches, which contributed to the magnificence of the court of Moſcow, almoſt unknown till then.

To the ſouth of the province of Smolenſko lies that of Kiovia, which is the Little Ruſſia, the Red-Ruſſia, or the Ukrain, croſſed by the Dnieper, which the Greeks call Boriſthenes. The difference of theſe two names, the one hard to be pronounced, the other melodious, ſerves to ſhew, with a hundred other proofs, the harſhneſs of the northern dialects, compared with the graces of the Greek tongue. The capital, Kiow, formerly Kiſovia, was built by the emperors of Conſtantinople, who made a colony of it. Some Greek inſcriptions, of one thouſand two hundred years ſtanding, are ſtill to be ſeen there. It is the only town of antiquity in theſe countries, where men have lived ſo many ages without building walls. There alſo the grand-dukes of Ruſſia reſided in the eleventh century, before the Tartars ſubjected Ruſſia.

The Ukranians, called Coſſacs, are a collected body of ancient Roxolans, Sarmatians, and Tartars. This country made part of the ancient Scythia. Nature ſeems laviſh in it of her favours to men; but the men have not ſeconded nature, living upon fruits produced by a land equally uncultivated and fertile, and living ſtill more upon

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rapine; fond to an exceſs of a happineſs preferable to all things, liberty; and yet having ſerved by turns Poland and Turkey. They gave themſelves up laſtly to Ruſſia, in 1654; and, though not diſpoſed to be entirely ſubject, Peter made them ſo. The other nations are diſtinguiſhed by their towns and villages, and divided into ten diſtricts; a chief called hetman, was elected by a plurality of votes to govern them, but without ſupreme power. It is now a lord of the court the Ruſſian ſovereigns ſend them for hetman, whoſe power reſembles that of a governor of certain ſtates, which ſtill retain ſome privileges. At firſt, the inhabitants of the country were all Pagans and Mohammedans; they were baptized Chriſtians of the church of Rome when they ſerved Poland; and now, ſince they belonged to Ruſſia, are baptized Chriſtians of the Greek church. Among them are comprehended thoſe Zaporavian Coſſacks, who, in ſome meaſure, are ſuch enterpriſing courageous robbers, as were formerly the freebooters. What diſtinguiſhes them from all other people is, that they never ſuffer women in their habitations, as it is pretended the Amazons did not ſuffer men. The women that ſerve them for population dwell in other iſles of the river. There is no marriage, no family among them: they inliſt the males in their militia, and leave the females to their mothers. The brother has often children by his ſiſter, and the father by his daughter. No other laws ſubſiſt among them but cuſtoms, eſtabliſhed by neceſſity; however, they have ſome prieſts of the Greek church. Not long ſince the fort St. Elizabeth has been built on the Boriſthenes, to reſtrain and keep them within bounds. They ſerve in the Ruſſian army as irregular troops, and behave like Tartars to thoſe that fall into their hands.

Government of Belgorod, Veroniſe, and Nitchgorod.

In going up to the north-eaſt of the province of Kiovia, between the Boriſthenes and Tanais, you find the government of Belgorod, as extenſive as that of Kiovia. It is one of the moſt fertile provinces of Ruſſia, furniſhing Poland with prodigious numbers of large cattle, known by the name of Ukraine oxen. Theſe two provinces are ſecure from the incurſions of the Little Tartars, by lines extending from the Boriſthenes to the Tanais, and defended by forts and redoubts. Going ſtill farther north, and paſſing the Tanais, you enter the government of Veroniſe, which extends to the Palus Mæotis. It was near the capital, called Veroneſteh, at the mouth of the river of the ſame name, that Peter the Great had his firſt

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fleet built; an enterprize which none had a notion of before, throughout thoſe vaſt ſtates. The government of Niſchgorod, fertile in corn, and watered by the Volga, is the next that preſents itſelf.

Theſe are all the Ruſſian territories in Europe; thoſe in Aſia have been already treated of.

State of Ruſſia before Peter the Great.

It is very probable, that Ruſſia had been much more populous than at preſent, in the time when the ſmall-pox from the heart of Arabia, and the other from America, had not yet ravaged theſe climates, where they have taken root. Theſe two plagues, whereby the world is more depopulated than by war, have been introduced, the one by Mohammed, the other by Columbus. The original peſtilence of Africa rarely infected the countries of the North. In ſhort, the people of the North, from the Sarmatians to the Tartars beyond the Great Wall, having overwhelmed the world with their irruptions, this ancient ſeminary of men muſt have been ſtrangely diminiſhed.

The cuſtoms, modes of dreſs, and manners of Ruſſia, were always more in imitation of Aſia than Chriſtian Europe: ſuch was the ancient cuſtom of receiving the people's tribute in commodities, and of defraying the expences of ambaſſadors on their route, and during their reſidence. The long gown on days of ceremony ſeemed more noble than the ſhort garb of the weſtern nations of Europe. A tunic, lined with furs, a long ſimar, enriched with precious ſtones on ſolemn days, and the ſort of high turbans that raiſe the ſtature, were a more agreeable ſpectacle than cloſe coats and perukes, and alſo better ſuited cold climates; but this ancient manner of clothing of all nations ſeems leſs adapted to war, and leſs commodious for labour. The far greater part of their other cuſtoms were groſs and ruſtic; but we muſt not imagine that their manners were as barbarous as repreſented by many writers.

The Ruſſian government reſembled that of the Turks, by the militia or ſtrelitz, which, like that of the janiſſaries, ſometimes diſpoſed of the throne, and troubled the ſtate almoſt always as much as they ſupported it. Theſe ſtrelitz were to the number of forty thouſand men. Such of them as were diſperſed in the provinces ſubſiſted by robbery; thoſe of Moſcow lived as citizens, traded, but were in no ſubjection, and carried their exceſſes to inſolence.

The ſtate did not poſſeſs five millions of rubles. This revenue was ſufficient when Peter came to the crown, for

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for keeping within the bounds of the ancient frugality; but it was not the third part of what was neceſſary for making a conſiderable figure in Europe.

The religion of the ſtate was, ever ſince the eleventh century, that which is called the Greek, in oppoſition to the Latin; but there were more Mohammedan and Pagan countries than Chriſtian. Siberia, as far as China, was idolatrous; and in more than one province, all kind of religion was unknown. It is pretended that a princeſs, by name Olha, introduced it, towards the cloſe of the tenth century. She was baptized at Conſtantinople, and called Helen. Her example did not at firſt make a great number of proſelytes. Her ſon Sowaſtoſlaw, who reigned a long time, was not of the ſame way of thinking; but her grandſon Volodimer, born of a concubine, having aſſaſſinated his brother, to reign in his place, and having ſought for the alliance of the emperor Baſil, of Conſtantinople, did not obtain it but on condtion of being baptized. It is at this epocha, of the year 987, that the Greek religion began in effect to be eſtabliſhed in Ruſſia. The patriarch Photius, ſo famous for his immenſe erudition, his diſputes with the Roman church, and his misfortunes, ſent proper perſons with a commiſſion to baptize Volodimer, in order to add that part of the world to his patriarchate. Volodimer finiſhed therefore the work begun by his grandmother. A Greek was the firſt metropolitan or patriarch of Ruſſia; and hence it is, that the Ruſſians have adopted in their language, which is the Sclavonian, an alphabet taken partly from the Greek. Theſe ſuperior prelates ſoon after their inſtitution, would fain ſhare the authority with the czars. It was reputed a ſmall matter that the ſovereign walked bare-headed once a year before the patriarch, leading his horſe by the bridle. This exterior reſpect ſerved only to irritate their thirſt after power; but this mad temper for affecting and exerting power occaſioned great troubles here as well as elſewhere.

Ruſſia, which is entirely indebted to Peter the Great for its influence on the affairs of Europe, had none, ſince it embraced Chriſtianity, till his time. In the reign of Heraclius, and ſometimes after, it was ſeen to arm on the Black Sea forty thouſand ſmall barks, and appear before Conſtantinople to beſiege it, and impoſe a tribute on the Greek Cæſars. But Volodimer, taken up with the care of introducing Chriſtianity, and perplexed by the inteſtine troubles of his family, weakened ſtill

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more his states by dividing them among his children. They almost all became a prey to the Tartars, who, during two hundred years, kept Russia in subjection. Ivan Basilides delivered and aggrandized it; but after his reign civil wars brought it to ruin.

Before Peter the Great, Russia wanted much of being as powerful, of having as many lands cultivated, as many subjects, as great revenues, as in our days. It possessed nothing in Finland, nothing in Livonia; and Livonia alone is worth more than all Siberia was for a long time. The Cossacks were not properly subjected; the people of Astracan obeyed but indifferently; and the little commerce carried on was scarce attended with any advantage. The White Sea, the Baltic, the Euxine, that of Asoph, and the Caspian, were entirely useless to a nation that had not one ship, and even wanted a term in its language to express a fleet. If nothing more was wanting than to be superior to the Tartars, and the people of the North, Russia enjoyed that advantage; but it was necessary to equal polished nations, and to be some time or other in a condition to surpass several. Such an enterprize appeared impracticable, because it had not one ship on the seas, was absolutely ignorant of military discipline by land, did scarce encourage the most simple manufacture, and even neglected agriculture, the primum mobile of all. Attention and encouragement are great requisites to well-governing.

This want of cultivating the necessary arts shews sufficiently that the Russians had not an idea of the polite, which become necessary in their turn, when all the rest are had. They might have sent some natives of the country for information among strangers; but the difference of language, manners, and religion were against it; a law also of state and religion, equally sacred and pernicious, forbad the Russians to go out of their country, and seemed to condemn them to eternal ignorance. They possessed the largest states of the universe, and every thing was to be done in them. In short, Peter was born, and Russia was formed.

Peter's family was on the throne since the year 1613. Russia before this time had experienced revolutions, which still kept a reformation and arts at a distance. Such is the fate of all human societies. There were never worse troubles in any kingdom. The tyrant Boris Godonow had assassinated, in 1597, the lawful heir Demetrius, and usurped the empire. A young monk assumed the name

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of Demetrius, pretended to be the prince that eſcaped out of the hands of the aſſaſſins, and aſſiſted by the Poles, and a great party which tyrants have always againſt them, expelled the uſurper, and uſurped himſelf the crown. His impoſture was diſcovered as ſoon as he became maſter, and the people being diſſatisfied with him, he was put to death. Three other ſpurious Demetrius's ſucceſſively ſtarted up. This ſeries of impoſtures ſuppoſed a country over-run with diſorders; the leſs men are civilized, the more eaſy it is to impoſe upon them. The Poles, who began the revolution, by ſetting up the firſt pretended Demetrius, were on the point of reigning in Ruſſia. The Swedes divided the ſpoil on the ſide of Finland, and pretended alſo to the throne. The ſtate was threatened with entire ruin.

Family of Peter the Great.

In the midſt of theſe calamities, an aſſembly compoſed of the principal Boyards elected for ſovereign in 1613, a youth of fifteen years of age. This did not ſeem to be a ſure means of putting an end to the troubles. The name of this youth was Michael Romanow; he was grandfather of the czar Peter, and ſon of the archbiſhop of Roſtow, ſurnamed Philaretes, and of a nun, related by the mother's ſide to the former czars. This archbiſhop was a powerful lord, and was forced by the tyrant Boris to become a prieſt; his wife Sheremeto was alſo obliged to take the veil; ſuch was the ancient cuſtom of the weſtern Chriſtian Latin tyrants; that of the Greek Chriſtians was putting out the eyes. The tyrant Demetrius conferred the archbiſhoprick of Roſtow on Philaretes, and ſent him ambaſſador into Poland. The Poles, then at war with the Ruſſians, impriſoned him, contrary to the law of nations, which indeed all theſe people were ignorant of. It was during his detention that the young Romanow, his ſon, was elected czar. The father was exchanged for ſome Poliſh priſoners, and the young czar created him patriarch; in ſhort, he became the real ſovereign under the name of his ſon.

If ſuch a government may appear ſingular to ſtrangers, what will they think of the czar Michael Romanow's marriage? The Ruſſian monarchs did not ſeek out for wives in other ſtates ſince the year 1490. It ſeems, that after they were poſſeſſed of Caſan and Aſtracan, they followed in almoſt all particulars the Aſiatic cuſtoms, eſpecially that of inter-marrying only with their ſubjects. What ſtill more reſembles the cuſtoms of ancient Aſia is, that, to marry a czar, the moſt beautiful young women of the

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provinces were brought to court; the great miſtreſs of the court received them into her apartments, lodged them ſeparately, and made them all eat together; the czar ſaw them, either under a borrowed name, or without diſguiſe. The wedding-day was fixed, though the choice was not yet known; and on that day, a wedding-garment was preſented to her on whom the ſecret choice had fallen; other clothes were diſtributed to the pretenders, who returned home. It was in this manner that Michael Romanow married Eudoxia, the daughter of a poor gentleman, called Streſhnew. He was cultivating his lands himſelf, with his domeſtics, when the chamberlains, ſent by the czar with preſents, informed him that his daughter was on the throne. The name of this princeſs is ſtill dear to Ruſſia. All this is foreign to our manners, and yet is not leſs reſpectable.

It is neceſſary to ſay, that before the election of Romanow, a conſiderable party had elected the prince Ladiſlaus, ſon of Sigiſmund III. king of Poland. The neighbouring provinces to Sweden had offered the crown to a brother of Guſtavus Adolphus. Thus Ruſſia was in the ſame ſituation Poland has often been in, where the right of electing a monarch proves generally the ſource of civil wars. But the Ruſſians did not imitate the Poles, who make a contract with the king they elect. Though they had experienced the fatal effects of tyranny, they ſubmitted to a young man without requiring any thing of him.

Ruſſia was never an elective kingdom; but the male line of the ancient ſovereigns having failed, and ſix czars, or pretenders, having periſhed unfortunately in the late troubles, there was a neceſſity for electing a monarch. This election cauſed new wars with Poland and Sweden, which fought for their pretended rights to the throne of Ruſſia. Such rights, of governing a nation againſt its will, never ſubſiſt for any long time. The Poles, on one ſide, after pillaging the country as far as Moſcow, which was the way of conducting military expeditions in thoſe days, concluded a truce of fourteen years. Poland, by this truce, remained in poſſeſſion of the duchy of Smolenſko, where the Boriſthenes has its ſource. The Swedes, having made peace alſo, remained poſſeſſed of Ingria, and deprived the Ruſſians of all communication with the Baltic; ſo that this empire remained more than ever ſeparated from the reſt of Europe.

Michael

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Michael Romanow reigned quiet after this peace, but made no change in his ſtates that either corrupted or perfected the adminiſtration. After his death, which happened in 1645, his ſon, Alexis Michaelowitz, or the ſon of Michael, about ſixteen years of age, reigned by hereditary right. He married as his father, and choſe the moſt amiable among the maidens brought to him. His reign was troubled by bloody and furious ſeditions, by inteſtine and foreign wars. It was he, however, who firſt digeſted a code of laws, though imperfect; he introduced manufactures of linen and ſilk; he peopled the deſarts about the Wolga and Kama with Lithuanian, Poliſh, and Tartar families, taken in his wars. All priſoners, before his time, were the ſlaves of thoſe into whoſe hands they fell; Alexis made them huſbandmen; he eſtabliſhed military diſcipline in his armies as much as he poſſibly could. In fine, he was worthy of being the father of Peter the Great; but he had not time to perfect any of his undertakings; an untimely death cut him off at the age of forty-ſix, in the beginning of the year 1677.

After Alexis, ſon of Michael, all fell again into confuſion. He left, by his firſt marriage, two princes and ſix princeſſes. The eldeſt, Fœdor, aſcended the throne at the age of fifteen. He was a prince of a weak and ſickly conſtitution; but his merit was uninfluenced by his bodily infirmities. Alexis, his father, had him acknowleged for his ſucceſſor the year before he died. The ſecond ſon, Ivan, or John, was ſtill worſe uſed by nature than his brother Fœdor, being almoſt deprived of ſight and ſpeech, as well as health, and often ſeized with convulſions. Of the ſix daughters born of this marriage, the only one famous in Europe was the princeſs Sophia, diſtinguiſhed by the talents of her mind, but unhappily ſtill better known by her evil deſigns on Peter the Great. Alexis, by his ſecond marriage with another of his ſubjects, the daughter of the boyard Nariſkin, left Peter and the princeſs Nathalia. Peter, born the 10th of June, new ſtyle, was but four years old when he loſt his father. The children of the ſecond marriage were not beloved, and it was little expected that Peter would ever reign.

The genius of the Romanow family was always bent upon policing the ſtate; ſuch was likewiſe the character of Fœdor. But the war he was engaged in with the Turks, or rather with the Crim-Tartars, which continued with an equality of ſucceſs, did not permit a prince of ſuch an ill ſtate of health to think of accompliſhing ſo

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great a work. Obſerving, before his death, that his brother Ivan, too much diſgraced by nature, was incapable of reigning, he nominated for heir of the Ruſſia's, his ſecond brother Peter, who was then only ten years old, but gave great hopes of extraordinary abilities. As to his ſiſters, if the cuſtom of raiſing ſubjects to the rank of czarina was favourable to their ſex, there was another that leaned hard on them. The daughters of the czars were then ſeldom married; moſt of them ſpent their lives in a monaſtery. However, Sophia, the third of the czar Alexis's daughters, by his firſt marriage, a princeſs of a wit equally ſuperior and dangerous, having ſeen that her brother Fœdor had but a little time to live, did not embrace the party of a convent, but finding herſelf between her two other brothers, who could not govern, the one by his incapacity, the other by his childhood, conceived the deſign of putting herſelf at the head of the empire.

Fœdor was therefore ſcarce expired, when having ſecured in her intereſt the corps of the ſtrelitz by bribes, and promiſes of an augmentation of pay and preſents, ſhe convened at her apartments an aſſembly of the princeſſes of the blood, the generals of the army, the boyards, the patriarch, biſhops, and even the principal merchants; ſhe repreſented to them, that the prince Ivan, by his right of ſeniority and merit, ought to have the empire, of which ſhe hoped in ſecret to hold the reins. At the breaking up of the aſſembly, her emiſſaries ſtirred up every where the ſoldiery againſt the family of the Nariſkins, and principally againſt the two Nariſkins, brothers of the young czarina dowager, mother of Peter I. The ſtrelitz were perſuaded that John, one of theſe brothers, had taken the robes of a czar, had placed himſelf on the throne, and had attempted to ſtrangle the prince Ivan; and to this was added the poiſoning of the czar Fœdor by a Dutch phyſician. In ſhort, Sophia had put into their hands a liſt of forty lords, whom ſhe called her enemies, and thoſe of the ſtate, and whom there was a neceſſity of maſſacring; and indeed, all were ſo ſerved that were odious to the ſtrelitz, or ſuſpected by Sophia. Examples of ſuch horrors have been ſeen in all countries, in the time of troubles and anarchy.

This horrible execution ended by proclaiming ſovereigns, in June 1682, the two princes Ivan and Peter, aſſociating with them their ſiſter Sophia, in quality of co-regent. Such were the ſteps by which ſhe aſcended in effect the throne of Ruſſia, without being declared

czarina;

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czarina; and ſuch were the firſt examples Peter the Great had before his eyes. Sophia enjoyed all the honours of a ſovereign; her buſt upon the coins, the ſignature for all expeditions, the firſt place in the council, and the ſupreme power in all reſpects. She was a perſon of great wit, even made verſes in her language, wrote and ſpoke well; an agreeable figure gave additional charms to ſo many talents; her ambition alone tarniſhed them.

She procured her brother Ivan to be married according to the cuſtom, of which we have ſeen ſo many examples. The beauty of a young lady of the name of Soltikoff prevailed againſt the intrigues of all her rivals. In the midſt of the ſolemnity of theſe eſpouſals, the ſtrelitz fomented a new inſurrection on account of ſome religious diſputes. It was quelled, but ſoon after followed by a more dangerous one, contrived by a Ruſſian lord, to revenge himſelf on Sophia's ingratitude, to whoſe elevation he had contributed. The cauſe of religion and devotion was the maſk of his deſigns; but, in the main, he did not pretend to leſs than the empire; and to rid himſelf of all future apprehenſions, he reſolved to maſſacre the two czars, Sophia, the other princeſſes, and all who were attached to the czariſh family. The czars and princeſſes were obliged to retire to the monaſtery of the Trinity, within twelve leagues of Peterſburg. Beſides ſerving as a convent, it was alſo a palace and fortreſs, as Mount Caſſino, Corbie, Fulda, Kempten, and ſo many others among the Chriſtians of the Latin communion. This monaſtery of the Trinity belongs to the monks of St. Baſil's inſtitute; but it is environed with large ditches, and brick ramparts, mounted with a numerous artillery. The czariſh family was there ſecure, rather by the ſtrength than the ſanctity of the place. From thence Sophia negociated with the rebel, deceived, inveigled him half way, and procured him to be beheaded, with one of his ſons, and thirty-ſeven ſtrelitz, who accompanied him. His other aſſociates and the ſtrelitz, who had taken up arms for ſupporting his cauſe, were pardoned on making a proper ſubmiſſion.

After theſe convulſions the ſtate reſumed an exterior tranquillity. Sophia had ſtill the principal authority, abandoned Ivan to his incapacity, and keeping Peter in tutelage. To augment her power, ſhe ſhared it with the prince Bazil Galitzin, a perſon of conſiderable abilities, whom ſhe made general in chief, adminiſtrator of the ſtate,

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ſtate, and keeper of the ſeals. Peter's talents, notwithſtanding the endeavours of the princeſs Sophia to keep him in a ſtate of ignorance, began daily more and more to ſhew themſelves. When he was about ſeventeen years of age, he had the courage of being czar in effect, though Ivan had ſtill but the name. This was enough to alarm Sophia. In conjunction with Gallitzin, ſhe engaged anew the chief of the ſtrelitz to ſacrifice the young czar to their intereſts; the death of Peter was reſolved on; the blow was ready to be ſtruck, and Ruſſia was on the point of being for ever deprived of the new exiſtence it afterwards received. Peter apprized of their deſigns, was again obliged to conſult his ſafety in the convent of the Trinity, the uſual aſylum of the court when threatened by the ſoldiery. There, having called together the boyards of his party, he aſſembles a militia, confers with the captains of the ſtrelitz, and invites to him ſome Germans, who had been long ſettled at Moſcow, all attached to his perſon, becauſe he already favoured ſtrangers. Sophia and Ivan remain at Moſcow, and conjure the corps of the ſtrelitz to continue faithful to them; but the cauſe of Peter, complaining of an attempt againſt his perſon and mother, prevails over that of Sophia, and a czar, whoſe aſpect alone was ſufficient to baniſh all affection for him. All the accomplices were puniſhed with a ſeverity to which the country was then as much accuſtomed as to ſuch baſe crimes. Prince Gallitzin, by the mediation of a relation in the czar Peter's intereſt, obtained his life; but he was ſtripped of all his wealth, which was immenſe, and baniſhed on the road of Archangel. The princeſs Sophia was confined to a monaſtery in Moſcow, after having reigned a conſiderable time; this change was a ſufficiently great puniſhment. From that moment Peter reigned. His brother Ivan had no other ſhare in the government but ſeeing his name in the public acts: he led a private life, and died in 1696.

Hiſtory will inform the reader of the acts of Peter I. They indeed afford ſuch matter of good and ſolid entertainment, that few are unacquainted with them. Here it will be ſufficient to obſerve, that he was juſtly ſurnamed the Great, the father and founder of the Ruſſian empire which makes ſo glorious a figure at this day, and which will be known, as one of the greateſt powers in the world, to lateſt poſterity.

Succeſſors of Peter the Great.

This great and good prince, dying in the beginning of the year 1725, was ſucceeded by his ſecond conſort, the empreſs

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empreſs Catharine, a lady whom he had raiſed to his bed, purely from the conſideration of her merit. She governed this great empire on the ſame principles by which it was founded; and, during her whole reign, was reſpected by her own ſubjects, and by all the powers of Europe, as the worthy ſucceſſor of ſo great a monarch. Yet ſhe enjoyed this high dignity but for a very ſhort ſpace, dying in the month of May 1727, and leaving the empire to the grandſon of her deceaſed lord. Ruſſia, from being governed by a woman, fell under the dominion of a child, who was the emperor Peter II. the laſt heir male of his family, and in the hands of an ambitious ſtateſman, prince Menzikoff, the favourite of Peter, and no leſs ſo of the late czarina Catharine.

Prince Menzikoff was a man of boundleſs ambition, and at the time of the young emperor's acceſſion, had the whole power of the empire in his hands. He had framed a deſign of raiſing his daughter to the rank of empreſs; and it is not improbable that he might have ſucceeded in this view, if he had not by an act of inſolence incurred the young emperor's diſpleaſure; who, though he was but twelve years old at his acceſſion, yet had ſo much ſenſe and ſpirit, that he diſgraced and baniſhed this too powerful ſubject, and confiſcated all his eſtate. He afterwards raiſed the princeſs Dolgorouki to the higheſt employments in the empire, and actually eſpouſed the princeſs Catharine, daughter to prince Alexis, and ſiſter to the princes Sergius and John; but, before the marriage was conſummated, he was ſeized with the ſmall-pox, of which he died on the 19th of January, 1730.

Upon the death of the emperor Peter II. the regular ſucceſſion in that empire was at a ſtand. According to the will of the empreſs Catherine, her eldeſt daughter Anne Petrowna, ducheſs of Holſtein, ought to have been called to the throne; but ſhe died the year after her mother, and left behind her a ſon, who was at that time about two years old. The ſenate and nobility of Ruſſia, to avoid ſo tedious a minority, reſolved not to adhere to this will; for which they eſtabliſhed this pretence, that it was vacated by the declaration of the late emperor upon his death-bed, who had appointed another ſucceſſor, though at firſt they could not agree among themſelves whom they ſhould declare this ſucceſſor to be; by which it was very manifeſt, that notwithſtanding their aſſertions, the young emperor in reality made no ſuch declaration.

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It has been reported, that ſome of the principal nobility had thoughts of changing the government into a republic; but that, finding this would be impracticable, they framed a new ſcheme of rule, which was to govern the empire themſelves, allowing only the name and enſigns of ſovereign authority to one of the imperial family. The next conſideration was, who this perſon ſhould be; and, after ſome debate, they caſt their eyes upon the princeſs Anna Iwanowna, ducheſs of Courland, of the imperial line indeed, but out of all the rules of ſucceſſion. She was the ſecond daughter of the emperor Ivan, or John, elder brother to Peter the Great, and for ſome time his aſſociate in the empire; but then ſhe had an elder ſiſter, Catharine Iwanowna, who was married to the duke of Mecklenburg, to whom, if the ſucceſſion was to devolve firſt on the daughters of the elder brother, the imperial crown ſhould have come; but her huſband was engaged in a kind of civil war with his nobility, and, therefore, it was given out, that, for ſecuring the peace and tranquillity of his ſubjects, the young emperor Peter II. had paſſed her by, and called her younger ſiſter to the ſucceſſion, which, ſoon after his death, ſhe was invited to accept.

The princes Dolgorouki and their faction, who took upon them the management of this affair, aſſigned the new empreſs a council, framed a conſtitution for the empire, and limited her authority as they thought proper; to which regulations ſhe readily conſented: but as ſoon as the czarina was fixed upon the throne, ſhe cancelled all theſe limitations, and baniſhed the authors of them. She made choice of grave and wiſe men for her miniſters, and gave the command of her armies to very able and experienced generals; which enabled her to govern with great reputation, and to maintain the credit of her empire with regard to the reſt of Europe, in as high a degree as any of her predeceſſors. She afforded the late emperor of Germany, Charles VI. powerful ſuccours againſt the houſe of Bourbon; ſhe ſeated the late king of Poland, elector of Saxony, upon the throne of his father, notwithſtanding all the arts, and in ſpite of the arms, of France; ſhe made war againſt the Turks with great ſucceſs, and, in the courſe of the war, totally ruined the power of the Crim Tartars. In a word, ſhe made her government as much revered, as, from the power of her extenſive dominions, it ought to be, and concluded ſuch alliances with foreign

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foreign ſtates, as were moſt proper for maintaining that ſyſtem of government which ſhe laboured to maintain.

She brought to her court her niece, the princeſs Anne of Mecklenburg, daughter of her elder ſiſter, and married her to prince Anthony Ulric, of Brunſwic Bevern, reſolved to call the iſſue of this marriage to the ſucceſſion. The princeſs of Mecklenburg was delivered of a ſon, on the 12th of Auguſt, 1740, whom the czarina, according to the Ruſſian conſtitution eſtabliſhed by Peter the Great, named her ſucceſſor, and directed, that the prince his father, and the grand-ducheſs his mother, ſhould be his guardians; ſhe likewiſe appointed a council about the young emperor, whom ſhe thought the moſt capable of ſuſtaining the weight of affairs, and of preſerving things in that condition wherein ſhe intended to leave them; ſo that there ſeemed no great reaſon to doubt the government might be carried on as well as in the former minority; and, flattered with theſe fair hopes, the empreſs Anna Iwanowna died, in October, 1740.

The emperor was immediately owned by the ſenate and people in his cradle; and the marquis de la Chetardie, the French miniſter, made his imperial majeſty a long ſpeech upon the occaſion, in which he aſſured him, Ivan or John, ſovereign of all the Ruſſias, of the ſincere friendſhip of Lewis XV. But, as if profeſſions of French friendſhip were ominous to all princes, it was not long before it appeared, that this government could not ſubſiſt in the form in which it ſtood by the late empreſs's will.

Peter the Great left behind him a daughter, whoſe name was Elizabeth Petrowna, a lady of diſtinguiſhed accompliſhments, and then about thirty-eight years of age. She had lived at court, during the laſt reign, in a manner and under circumſtances far enough from being ſuitable to her birth: and the prudence of her behaviour, joined to that magnanimity with which ſhe had ſupported her misfortunes, had ſuch an influence on all who beheld her, that ſhe had long reigned in the hearts of the people, while others reigned upon the throne. At laſt, the whole Ruſſian nation, princes, nobility, ſenators, ſoldiers, and even the populace, teſtified ſuch an affection for her, that ſome who had ſerved her father with fidelity, and now enjoyed the rewards of their ſervices, reſolved to hazard all for her deliverance, and to riſk every thing to recover her juſt rights. They attempted it, and Providence gave a bleſſing to the attempt: this revolution happened in

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ſingle night. On the 5th of December, the princeſs Elizabeth was a kind of priſoner in the imperial palace, and on the 6th ſhe was ſeated on the imperial throne, and the tongues of her ſubjects being ſet at liberty, ſaluted empreſs of all the Ruſſias, by the unanimous voice of the people. The depoſed emperor, John II. was confined at Riga, with his father and mother.

The empreſs Elizabeth was no ſooner poſſeſſed of the crown of her illuſtrious anceſtors, than ſhe gave the higheſt marks of thoſe virtues which rendered her worthy of that elevation, and which her former circumſtances had concealed. But her conduct appeared in nothing more wiſe and amiable, than in the care ſhe took for ſettling the ſucceſſion, which ſhe knew muſt be fixed, before ſhe could hope to ſee her government firmly eſtabliſhed. She therefore reſolved to ſend for her nephew, Charles Peter Ulric, the young duke of Holſtein, who was the preſumptive heir to the imperial crown, under the original eſtabliſhment of Peter the Great. He was born the tenth of February, 1728, and ſoon after his arrival at Peterſburg, was declared grand-duke of Ruſſia, and heir apparent to the empire; in which quality he was alſo acknowleged by the ſenate, as well as by all the nobility of that great empire, with the utmoſt chearfulneſs poſſible.

In 1745, he married the princeſs Catharine of Anhalt Zerbſt, by whom he had one ſon, Paul Petrowitz, born in 1754. On the deceaſe of the empreſs Elizabeth, he aſcended the throne, on the 5th of January, 1762, by the title of Peter III. but was depoſed on the 9th of July following, and in a week after died of poiſon. This prince ſtands accuſed of having obſerved no rules of prudence or moderation either in his public proceedings or private conduct. He had offended the clergy, who are a numerous, powerful, and popular body, by attacking their beards, which Peter the Great had attempted to demoliſh in vain, and what was ſtill worſe, by diminiſhing their revenues, and changing their eccleſiaſtical diſcipline and religious rites. He had offended the Ruſſian grandees by his warm attachment to the prince of Holſtein and the Germans. He had ſhocked all orders of the nation, by his ſudden and precipitate change of the political ſyſtem which had been warmly purſued in the late war by his predeceſſor in favour of the houſe of Auſtria, and by his blind zeal and unbounded affection for the king of Pruſſia, whom he took for his infallible guide in religion, politics, muſic, war, and every thing elſe. Beſides all this, his private intrigues with

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with one of the nieces of chancellor Woronzoff, whom, it is ſaid, he loved as well as he could, gave umbrage to the empreſs, whom he had never loved to much purpoſe; and it was even ſuppoſed that he had formed the deſign of ſhutting her up in a cloiſter, and of raiſing the counteſs of Woronzoff to the dignity of empreſs. But ſhe found means to elude his deſigns; and it was ſhe herſelf, at the head of fifteen thouſand men, that ſeized the perſon of Peter III. being previouſly proclaimed ſole and reigning empreſs of Ruſſia, and her ſon, the great duke Paul, acknowleged as her lawful heir.

The czar, her conſort, when he firſt came into Ruſſia, was, indeed, not much diſpoſed to embrace the manners of the people. She, on the other hand, acted quite another part. She ſtudied their language, aſſiduouſly complied with their cuſtoms in every thing, and expreſſed, upon all occaſions, a great zeal for the Greek church. It was chiefly by her conduct that the emperor met with no oppoſition at his acceſſion; and having ſo ſtrong an inſtance of her power over the minds of the people, this revolution will appear leſs wonderful than, without conſidering theſe circumſtances, it would ſeem. However, as ſhe is a German by birth, and was bred a Proteſtant, ſhe cannot be ſuppoſed to have any partiality to the Greek church, whoſe doctrines are eſtabliſhed in that empire; nor is it reaſonable to imagine, that the Ruſſians can naturally have more love for her than for her huſband, on account of their being both Germans. If ſhe was engaged to take this extraordinary ſtep by any ambitious view, it is hardly poſſible that a revolution ſo founded can long ſubſiſt; and it muſt be allowed, that ſhe is not altogether free from dangers and apprehenſions, witneſs the conſpiracies, though hitherto ineffectual, that have been ſet on foot to diſpoſſeſs her.

But now, ſince the baſe and barbarous murder of the late emperor John (in the caſtle of Schluſſelberg) to which he was removed ſince her reign, what muſt we think of the ſituation of her mind? Can it be at eaſe, or does ſhe imagine that tranquillity can dwell with her upon a throne which ſhe has endeavoured to ſecure by ſuch horrid meaſures? She has publiſhed a manifeſto relative to that unfortunate prince, wherein ſhe deſcribes him, from her own perſonal knowlege, and that of ſeveral, who, in company with her, paid him a viſit while alive, as a moſt miſerable object, ſtupid, ſenſeleſs, unable to read, and troubled with a very great impediment in his ſpeech; that her

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her intention in visiting him was to have given him some comfort, by assuring him that his life should be made easy; but that finding him so poor a creature, not only insensible of her intended kindnesses, but even unknowing of those he had about him, she found it impossible to do any thing more for him, than leave him where she had found him, with proper conveniencies; and that from thence an attempt was made to rescue him by a desperate young officer, named Basil Mirowitz, grandson to the first rebel that joined the famous Mazeppa; but that the guardians of his person, two officers of the garrison, sooner than deliver him up, agreed to put him to death. This manifesto, published to justify this execrable deed, is almost as unaccountable as the deed itself. It seems to have been drawn on a supposition, that all those for whom it is designed are destitute of both common sense and common humanity; for a very moderate portion of these must render this declaration an object of horror. The accounts of Ivan's mental disorder are known by many to be false, and the story of his deliverer (since put to death) is indeed marvellous: but while the voice of nations deplores the fate of the unfortunate Ivan, and the tears of humanity flow at the view of that innocent victim (to guilt and fear) expiring under the blows of two execrable assassins, the defender of this bloody deed dares to make use of the name of Providence and its adorable decrees, and throws a motley mask of religion and politics over a scene of murder. The mind that is truly religious must tremble at this monstrous association.

Government of Russia.

The czar, Peter the Great, was the legislator of his dominions; and though no prince was more absolute than himself, yet it is certain that he aimed at setting some bounds to the power of his successors; and for this reason he established a senate, in which it is thought that he had the government of France in view, and that he meant that this should resemble the parliament of Paris, which it does in many respects, and in none more than this, that it serves to give a sanction, and the form and authority of laws to acts that spring from the will of the prince. But still the old constitution prevails, and the true government of Russia is, what it always was, despotic. In minorities, indeed, and in other conjunctures, there seems to be an actual power attributed to the senate, which, to people at a distance, may represent the form of rule in Russia as a limited government; but when we come to examine it more closely, we shall perceive so strict a conformity between

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tween the will of the prince and the decrees of this aſſembly, as muſt ſufficiently convince us, that the imperial power is rather ſtrengthened than controuled by their proceedings. As to the ſeveral colleges, as they are ſtyled in Ruſſia, or as called by us, boards, to which the various branches of the adminiſtration are aſſigned, though the form is German, yet the thing is French; and Peter the Great contrived them after the model of the ſeveral councils in France. The high-chancellor is generally conſidered as the prime miniſter, and the vice-chancellor as his coadjutor.

Security of the Ruſſian dominions on the north, &c.

It will not be amiſs to obſerve here, in concluding this article, that the northern parts of the Ruſſian empire, from the frontiers of the Swediſh dominions to thoſe of China and Japan, are guarded in ſuch a manner as to be ſecure not only from danger, but from apprehenſions; having on that ſide a ſea, hitherto impenetrable, and through which, if any paſſage could be found, it muſt turn to the benefit, but can never prove of any diſadvantage to the ſubjects of Ruſſia, which is a point of great conſequence, and is a bleſſing ſcarce known to any other country but this. The frontiers of the empire towards China are alſo inacceſſible, as conſiſting of deſarts impenetrable by armies, but which yield a tolerable paſſage for caravans; ſo that the Ruſſians may, in a great meaſure, always reckon on the friendſhip of the Chineſe; and whenever they apply themſelves ſeriouſly thereto, may make this friendſhip turn to their advantage. The Tartars, inhabiting the countries between Ruſſia and Perſia, are no longer formidable to the Ruſſians; on the contrary, they all reſpect them, and many of them have willingly ſubmitted, and become their vaſſals. The Caſpian Sea, and the dominions which the Ruſſians have on that ſide, give them a fair opening into Perſia, which they have already improved ſo as to gain to themſelves a very advantageous trade, and this by degrees may be extended perhaps as far as the Eaſt Indies.

SECT. XII.

Of Sweden.

Boundaries, ſoil, products, &c. of Sweden.

THE kingdom of Sweden is bounded by the Baltic Sea, the Sound, and the Categate on the ſouth; by the mountains of Norway, on the weſt; by Daniſh or Norwegian Lapland, on the north; and by Ruſſia, on the eaſt.

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The ſoil, where capable of cultivation, is tolerably fruitful; but, for want of induſtry, the Swedes have not a competent ſupply of corn, and, therefore, import many ſorts of grain from Livonia. Their cattle are ſmall in ſize, their ſheep bear a coarſe wool, fit only for clothing peaſants; their horſes are of a delicate kind: they have plenty of wild beaſts, which are hunted for their fleſh, as well as their hides and furs: fowl, both wild and tame, are in great plenty, and good in their kind: their lakes are well ſtored with variety of fine fiſh: their woods and foreſts overſpread great part of the country, and are for the moſt part of pines, fir, beech, birch, alder, juniper, and ſome oak. The air is exceſſive cold in winter, the mountains being for nine months covered with ſnow. They have no conſiderable manufactures, and yet they have a very great trade, and are very ſtrong in ſhipping; the reaſon is, the produce of their land, notwithſtanding its northern ſituation and barren ſoil, is an immenſe treaſure, and makes up for their want of manufactures: this product is not only great, but inexhauſtible in its fund, and conſiſts of ſilver, copper, iron, timber, flax, hemp, pitch, tar, furs, and hides.

Silver mine. The ſilver they have peculiar to themſelves, being found in no other place in all theſe parts of the world, except in Norway, and this is the product of one mine only, at a place called Nola. The ore in the mine lies one hundred and forty-five fathoms deep, the working of which has continued near three hundred years, and yet, as they relate, is unexhauſted. The mine itſelf is very curious, and ſtrangers are often carried down to ſee it. The revenue of it to the crown is according to the degree of its being worked.

Iron and copper mines. Their mines of iron and copper are very valuable indeed, and are a fund of wealth conſiderably greater than the mine of ſilver. They will ſupport Sweden, perhaps, to the end of time; for, as the quantity is inexhauſtible, ſo the advantage of working theſe mines is very great. Without this, Sweden, which is a poor and barren place, excepting ſome few valleys and flat countries on the ſea-coaſt, would not be able, on any terms, to import ſuch great quantities of the manufactures and product of other countries as they now do; but their copper and iron ſupply them with all things, and the balance is always very much in their favour, which is not to be wondered at, as before the calamitous wars they were engaged in with the Ruſſians, which drained them both of men and money, the

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the Swediſh nation was a formidable power: and they tell us, that Sweden only, without including their provinces in Germany, furniſhed Charles XII. from the time of his firſt expedition againſt the king of Denmark, to his death at Frederickſhall, above three hundred thouſand men for ſoldiers, and two hundred and twenty-ſeven tons of gold, either in ſpecie, or bills of exchange made good in Sweden, or bills at Hamburg, when exchange failed from Sweden; and this was always made good in copper or iron. If this be true, and that we add to it the dreadful havock and deſtruction of the mines of copper, and of the iron-works, which the Ruſſians made in their ſeveral invaſions upon them at the end of that war, we need not wonder that the Swedes have been ſince in a low condition, in compariſon to what they were, both as to real wealth and trade. The Ruſſians carried away ſeventy thouſand tons of iron, beſides copper; and did an irreparable damage, by deſtroying the copper mines, which had coſt immenſe ſums to bring to perfection; and by cutting down the woods, which were the life and ſupport of the iron works. Notwithſtanding all this, and other ſubſequent diſaſters, we ſee the Swedes, by an application never enough to be commended, recovering, and their government and gentry contributing to the repair of their mines, and exciting them vigorouſly to agriculture, and even to manufactures.

Territories out of Sweden.

The Swedes have two countries diſtant from their native one, in which they have ſtill ſome intereſt; and theſe are Finland and Pomerania. In Finland they have very few ports left, the Ruſſians being poſſeſſed of Elſingvas and Wiburg. At Abo, and ſome other ſmall places remaining to them, they drive a conſiderable trade in deals, which are very valuable in England and Holland, being of a good durable and uncommon kind of yellow fir. They alſo export the beſt maſts for ſhips of any place, except Wiburg, in all thoſe ſeas. The inland country is famed for good horſes, and the Finlander horſe were once eſteemed the beſt cavalry in all Germany. In Pomerania, the Swedes have ſtill the port of Stralſund, which is a very conſiderable, rich, trading city, and a good port; and the iſle of Rugen is a large, fruitful, and well cultivated iſland; and from hence Sweden itſelf, in times of ſcarcity, is often ſupplied with corn. Pomerania is of note for the beſt oak timber and plank, and the Swedes have the greateſt part of theirs from hence, with which they build their ſhips of war at Carelſcroon.

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Navigation of the Swedes.

The Swediſh navigation was very inconſiderable, till queen Chriſtina, at the concluſion of the war in 1664, obtained from Denmark a freedom for all ſhips and merchandize, belonging to the Swediſh ſubjects, in their paſſage through the Sound; and eſtabliſhed in her own dominions that difference of cuſtom which ſtill ſubſiſts between Swediſh and foreign ſhips, and is in the proportion of four, five, ſix; the firſt being called whole-free, the ſecond half-free, and the laſt unfree: ſo that, where a whole-free Swediſh ſhip pays four hundred crowns, a half-free one pays five hundred, and a foreign veſſel ſix hundred. But great as this advantage was, it had but little effect, till the Engliſh act of navigation bridled the Hollanders, and opened the intercourſe between England and Sweden. Since that time their commerce has been much augmented, as well as ours, that way, and goods are tranſported by both, or either party, according to the various conjunctures of affairs. When Sweden has been engaged in a war, the Engliſh ſhips have had the whole employ; but in time of peace, the advantage is ſo great on the Swediſh ſide, and merchants ſo much encouraged, by freedom in cuſtoms, to employ their own ſhips, that Engliſh bottoms cannot be uſed in that trade, but only when Sweden is unprovided with a number of ſhips ſufficient for the tranſportation of their own commodities.

Hiſtory and conſtitution of Sweden.

The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, have had the reputation of ſubduing all the ſouthern nations in Europe; but it is not to be ſuppoſed that this nation ſingly could effect thoſe mighty conqueſts: they were, no doubt, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, and other people, and by many adventurers in Germany and other countries through which they paſſed, in hopes of ſharing the plunder of the world with them, and poſſeſſing warmer climates. It appears that the countries of Scandinavia, which were Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, were ſometimes under the dominion of one prince, and at other times had each of them their reſpective ſovereigns. In the year 1523, Sweden being ſubject to Denmark, Guſtavus Erickſon, a Swediſh nobleman, aſſembled the miners of Dalecarlia, with whom he had lived under ground for ſome time, and joining other advocates of liberty, raiſed ſuch a force, that he expelled the Danes out of this kingdom; in gratitude for which ſervice, the Swedes firſt elected him their king, and afterwards made the crown hereditary in his family.

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But we need not go higher in the Swediſh hiſtory than Guſtavus Adolphus, who aſcended the throne of Sweden in 1611. He was a prince of great abilities, which manifeſted themſelves ſo clearly in his youth, that the ſtates thought fit to give him the entire adminiſtration of affairs ſoon after his acceſſion to the crown, though he was then but eighteen. He found his kingdom the loweſt and weakeſt, as he left it the greateſt and moſt powerful in the North. He recovered from the Danes the fortreſſes they had taken from the Swedes. Then turning his arms againſt the Ruſſians, he took from them great part of Livonia, Ingermania, and the city of Hexholm, the poſſeſſion of which he ſecured by a treaty concluded under the mediation of Great Britain. The long war he maintained againſt the Poles proved very advantageous to Sweden, and procured for her the remaining part of Livonia, and the important city of Riga. He next declared himſelf the protector of the Proteſtants in Germany againſt the houſe of Auſtria, the power of which was then formidable to all Europe, and which nevertheleſs he broke in a ſhort ſpace of time, and with a very ſmall force, having ſoon made himſelf maſter of Stetin, and a great part of Pomerania, and defeated the imperialiſts in the glorious battle of Leipſic, on the 7th of September, 1631. In the battle of Lutzen, on the 16th of November, 1632, the Swediſh foot having routed the imperialiſts, and ſeized their cannon, the king thinking the horſe did not advance faſt enough to the purſuit, put himſelf before them in paſſing a ſmall river, on the other ſide of which he was found dead, having his arm broke by one muſket ſhot, and another entering his back, had paſſed through his body. There were great ſuſpicions of treachery in this caſe. Puffendorf fixes it expreſly upon the duke of Saxe Lawenburgh. However it was, the king's death was ſoon known, which inſtead of abating, heightened the courage of the Swedes into fury, ſo that when the imperialiſts were rallied, they again attacked and again defeated them, which circumſtance does the higheſt honour to the Swediſh troops. Thus fell this great conqueror in the arms of victory.

As he had extended the dominions, and raiſed the reputation of Sweden abroad, ſo he likewiſe acted the part of a legiſlator at home, and reduced the conſtitution of his country into order, which he would certainly have improved if he had lived to return into his own dominions. Sometimes a ſingle genius changes entirely the con-

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dition and circumstances of a whole nation, as his indeed did the Swedes, and that of Peter the Great the Russians. In virtue of his regulations, the crown, which was before intailed only on the male line, descended to his daughter Christina, a child of six years old; which minority, though it seemed to threaten ruin, proved in reality the great security of Sweden; for the king of Denmark and the elector of Brandenburg remained firm to the engagements into which they had entered with Gustavus, and the rest of the allies became less apprehensive of the power of that crown, than they had been in the life-time of that king.

The chancellor Axel Oxenstiern, to whom the whole management of affairs in Germany was committed, made so right an use of these favourable circumstances, and managed all things so wisely and so well, that at the close of the war, which lasted several years, the Swedes were possessed of one hundred fortified places, and had an army on foot of upwards of one hundred thousand men, which enabled them so effectually to maintain their pretensions, that on the conclusion of the peace of Munster, they had the country of Pomerania, with the duchies of Bremen and Verden, the city of Wismar, a vote in the diets of the empire and circle of Lower Saxony; together with a million of crowns in ready money, as a satisfaction for their services.

As the war was glorious to the arms, so the peace was no less honourable to the councils of Sweden; and the young queen Christina was esteemed and courted by all the powers of Europe. She had a great deal of learning, and a very extensive capacity; but with these great qualities, there was a mixture of many defects. Her subjects would willingly have seen her married to her cousin Charles Gustavus; to which, however, neither she nor that prince were inclined, and therefore she very wisely chose to content all parties, by resigning to him the crown, which she did in an assembly of the states, held at Upsal in May, 1654, reserving only a pension to herself for the support of her dignity; and having embraced the Roman Catholic religion, she retired to Rome, where she lived with great magnificence to the time of her decease, which happened April 9, 1689.

Charles Gustavus, or Charles X. of Sweden, who succeeded the throne by the abdication of queen Christina, was son of John Casimir, prince palatine of the Rhine, and Catharine of Sweden, daughter of Charles IX. and sister

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ſiſter to Guſtavus Adolphus. He conquered the greater part of Poland in three months time, to revenge the affront done him in proteſting againſt his admiſſion to the crown; but the powerful confederacy of the emperor, Ruſſia, Holland, and Denmark againſt him, obliged him to relinquiſh his conqueſts on that ſide: he humbled Denmark, and his courage and virtues enabled him to make ſo great a figure, as not only to maintain the credit which the crown of Sweden had acquired, but to carry it even higher than it had riſen under his glorious predeceſſor, the famous Guſtavus Adolphus; but then it was built on the foundation he had laid. A fever cut ſhort his days on the 13th of February, 1660, whilſt he was ſtill engaged in a war againſt ſome of the greateſt powers in Europe.

Charles XI. his ſon and ſucceſſor, was but five years old when he died. Things were kept in good order during his minority, the treaty of Oliva being then concluded, whereby the king of Poland renounced his claim to the crown of Sweden, and the republic all her rights to Livonia; a peace alſo was made at the ſame time with Denmark. This prince inquired after and corrected all abuſes that had crept into the civil government, whilſt former kings of Sweden, truſting all things to their miniſters, minded nothing but war; and looked particularly into law-ſuits, ſitting himſelf in the ſupreme court, and diſpatching there more cauſes in ſeven years than before had been decided in twenty. By this means he gained the love of his ſubjects to ſuch a degree, that the ſtates of the kingdom conſented, at his requeſt, to take away a great part of the power which till then the ſenate had enjoyed; and made afterwards ſuch farther alterations in the government, as rendered the king as abſolute as any monarch in Europe. But ſuch was his conduct, that the people being ſatisfied whatever grants or conceſſions they made were all for their own ſervice, they thought they could never do too much for him; and indeed his reign is the ſtrongeſt proof, that the ſureſt way for a prince to make his will the law, is to govern by law. Thus, by a ſteady and prudent management, he ſupported his own power at home, and maintained the credit of the crown of Sweden abroad to the time of his deceaſe, which happened on the 5th of April, 1697, aged forty-two.

His only ſurviving ſon and ſucceſſor, Charles XII. was declared major by the ſtates before he reached ſixteen, notwithſtanding the adminiſtration of the government was appointed

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pointed to be continued in the hands of the dowager of Charles X. assisted by five senators till her grandson came to the age of eighteen. The general peace of Ryswick was concluded under his mediation in half a year after the declared term of his majority. His neighbours, however, taking advantage of his youth, formed a confederacy for attacking him on all sides, and this without the least provocation. The confederates were Frederick IV. king of Denmark, Augustus II. king of Poland, and the czar Peter the Great, all esteemed as wise princes as any of their times; but influenced in this by their ambition, and the prospect they had of dividing amongst themselves the acquisitions of Sweden. Charles, having penetrated this scheme, landed an army in Zealand, and besieged Copenhagen, reducing in a very short time the king of Denmark so low, that he was constrained to make peace, and desert the confederacy by a treaty signed at Travendahl, August 8, 1700. The very same year he relieved Narva, that was besieged by the czar, and obtained on the 20th of November the most complete victory with the greatest inequality of forces that is recorded in modern history. He turned his victorious arms next against the Poles, forced them to depose king Augustus, and make choice of a new king, which they did on the 5th of May, 1704, in the person of Stanislaus Leszinski, palatine of Posnánia. He pushed his resentment still farther, by following Augustus into his hereditary dominions of Saxony, where he exhausted the country by excessive contributions, and imposed very hard conditions on that monarch himself, by the famous treaty which was concluded at Altranstadt, a village within two miles of Leipsick. We may truly affirm the year 1708 was that in which the glory of Sweden rose to its utmost height. Charles had then the balance of Europe in his hands, and might have prescribed terms to all its powers, from the critical situation of his own affairs and theirs; but his boundless ambition threw him very soon into a different condition. Desirous of completing his plan, towards which there wanted but one stroke, he marched through the Ukraine into Russia, resolved to drive the czar out of his territories, as he had forced the Dane to save his capital by a peace, and the Poles to depose a king who was his enemy. This produced the famous battle of Pultowa, which cost the Swedes thirty thousand men, and forced the king to take shelter in Turkey with a handful of people. This fatal engagement happened on the 27th of June, 1709, and made

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made an open for his enemies to execute the projects they had formed ten years before, an opportunity which none of them let ſlip. The king of Denmark once more declared war, and made a deſcent upon Schonen; the king of Poland entered again into poſſeſſion of his dominions; the Ruſſians re-poſſeſſed themſelves of the moſt valuable part of the Swediſh territories on the Baltic; and though at firſt the confederates kept ſome meaſures in Germany, yet at laſt they attacked and divided the Swediſh territories there: the Pruſſians got the better part of Pomerania, and Bremen and Verden falling into the hands of the Danes, they diſpoſed of them to the elector of Hanover.

His Swediſh majeſty returned into his dominions in November, 1714, and very ſoon made his enemies ſenſible of his preſence. He found his territories exhauſted, his own and his predeceſſors conqueſts loſt, and ſcarce any friend or ally left; yet he maintained his abſolute power over his own ſubjects, and proſecuted the war with inflexible reſolution. He perſiſted in his former notions of deſtroying or depoſing every prince with whom he was diſpleaſed. He meditated a deſcent upon Zealand, with a view once more to beſiege Copenhagen, in which he failed; he engaged in ſome deſigns for diſturbing the peace of Great Britain, which were diſconcerted; his laſt attempt was an invaſion upon Norway, where he was ſhot before Frederickſhal, on the 1ſt of December, 1718, dying as he lived, ill treated, but unconquered.

Upon his demiſe the ſtates of Sweden declared his younger ſiſter the princeſs Ulrica Eleanora queen, and her huſband, the hereditary prince of Heſſe Caſſel, generaliſſimo; for the war ſtill continued. In 1720, that prince, having embraced the Lutheran religion, was raiſed to the throne of Sweden; and ſoon after peace was made with all the powers with whom Sweden had ſo long contended. By theſe treaties the Swedes recovered part of Pomerania, and the town of Wiſmar; but the king of Pruſſia kept the duchy of Stetin; the duchies of Bremen and Verden were left to Hanover, and the czar kept in general all his conqueſts.

Revolutions in the government of Sweden.

In conſequence of theſe ſteps, the face of affairs of Sweden was entirely changed, and from being one of the moſt abſolute, became the moſt limited crown in Europe, the ſenate having recovered all their ancient privileges, and the ſtates having reſumed and even extended their powers;

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powers; so that the king was not able to do any thing of consequence without their approbation. The constitution of the government consisted of four estates with the king at their head: 1. The nobility and gentry: 2. The clergy: 3. The burgesses: and 4: The peasants. With the nobility and representatives of the gentry, the colonels, lieutenant-colonels, majors, and captains of every regiment sit and vote. The clergy elected one from every rural deanery, consisting each of ten parishes, which, with the bishops and superintendants, amounting to about two hundred, represented that body. The magistrates and council of every corporation elected the burghers to represent them, of which there were four for Stockholm, and two for every town, amounting to about one hundred and fifty. The peasants chose one of their own number, and not a gentleman, to represent them out of every district, amounting to about two hundred and fifty. All these generally met at Stockholm, and, after the state of affairs had been represented to them from the throne, they separated and sat in four several chambers or houses, in each whereof the votes of the majority concluded the rest; but every chamber had a negative in the passing any law. The senate, without whom the king could determine nothing, were reduced to fourteen, and elected in the following manner; twenty four of the nobility or upper house, twelve of the clergy, and twelve burgesses, chose three persons, on a vacancy, and presented them to the king, who appointed one of them to supply the vacancy; but two of a family could not be of the senate at the same time, and the peasants had no vote in the election of a senator. When the king was absent or sick, the executive power was lodged in the senate, and the king had no more than the casting vote when present; but they were accountable to the diet for their administration. Every one of the superior courts of justice had a senator for its president; and there were councils or boards established to manage the public revenues, as a war-office, commissioners of the admiralty, others for the mines, for commerce, and every other branch of business. Law-suits concerning the titles of estates were but of short continuance, all sales and alienations of lands being registered, as well as the incumbrances on them. People were allowed to plead their own causes if they thought fit; and in so little reputation was the profession of the law in Sweden, that no gentleman would undertake it.

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Criminals for ſmall thefts were condemned to labour in the public works, fortifications, buildings, and highways; and, what is peculiar to this country, they had courts of honour erected, where if any gentleman had received an affront, he might have ſatisfaction awarded him. There has been no inſtance of the puniſhment of popiſh prieſts here by caſtration, ſince it paſſed into a law.

The prince of Heſſe, who, we have ſeen, was raiſed to the throne of Sweden, was not able to defend the kingdom againſt the Ruſſians, who, in 1741, invaded Sweden, plundered the country, and deſtroyed, as before mentioned, their copper and iron-works. There were ſome hopes that things would have gone better for Sweden after the great revolution in Ruſſia, which placed the empreſs Elizabeth upon the throne; but after various negociations, the war broke out again with greater heat than ever; and the Swedes, who had ſo often in former times beat the Ruſſians, were now beaten by them over and over, the beſt part of their army made priſoners, and all the country of Finland loſt, which reduced them to the hard neceſſity of making peace upon the beſt terms they could obtain.

In the beginning of this war, Ulrica Eleonora, the queen of Sweden, dying without iſſue, the Swedes elected the duke of Holſtein Gottorp, ſon of the elder ſiſter of Charles XII. to ſucceed to that crown after the death of the late king; but the duke rendering himſelf incapable of the crown of Sweden, by accepting the reverſion of the Ruſſian empire, the Swedes made choice of Adolphus Frederick, the duke of Holſtein Eutin, biſhop of Lubeck, who ſome years ſince revived abſolute power, and deſtroyed the juſt mentioned conſtitution.

The Swedes in ſupport of their allies in the late war made a very indifferent figure; but this may be attributed to a diviſion among themſelves, the court being ſecretly attached to the king of Pruſſia, to whoſe third ſiſter Louiſa Ulrica, the king of Sweden is married.

Character of the Swedes.

The Swedes are a race of men as hardy, patient, and robuſt, as any in Europe; and preſerve in full vigour their abilities, both in body and mind, to a very advanced age. They have been always very juſtly eſteemed a martial people, and though their force is much reduced, yet the troops they have are as good as ever. They profeſs the Lutheran doctrine, which is not only the faith by law eſtabliſhed, but the only one tolerated among them.

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them. The nobility, gentry, and better ſort of people, have all a tincture of learning, and very few have more; they have always been eſteemed loyal to their princes, and have generally ſhewn themſelves hearty friends to liberty, though they have been ſometimes miſtaken about it, and yet have perſiſted obſtinately in their miſtakes. As to the vices of the Swedes, they are at leaſt as conſpicuous as their virtues; they have a ſickleneſs in their tempers, equally fatal to them in the purſuit of politics or learning; they have a great proportion of vanity, which diſplays itſelf particularly in furniture and equipage; for as to thoſe expences that make no ſhew, theſe people are by nature little addicted to them. But the vice moſt predominant among them is envy, directed more eſpecially againſt ſtrangers, who if they thrive in trade, at court, or in the army, fill the people with an unaccountable malice and diſpleaſure. And the ſame bad turn they are apt to take, even againſt their own countrymen, more eſpecially if they ſpring from a low beginning, or riſe at too quick a rate. They are not much inclined to manufactures, nor have they any true genius for trade, though they have good ſhips and ſkilful ſeamen.

SECT. XIII.

Of Denmark.

Diviſion, boundaries, and extent of the kingdom of Denmark.

THE kingdom of Denmark, one of the moſt ancient in Europe, is divided into two parts by the Baltic Sea, namely, the peninſula annexed to the continent of Germany, and the iſlands. The former, which contains the duchy of Holſtein, South Jutland, or Sleſwic, and North Jutland, is bounded on the weſt and north by the German ocean; on the eaſt, by that part of the ſea called Categate, and the Middle-fort Sound; and, on the ſouth, by the river Elbe. Its greateſt length, from ſouth to north, is about two hundred and twenty-four miles; but its breadth, not including the iſlands, is not above ſeventy-four miles; and, in ſome places, much narrower. The iſlands, which make up the other part of this kingdom, are Zealand, Funen, Langeland, Laland, Falſter, and ſome others of leſs note.

Air, ſoil, commodities, trade, navigation, &c.

The air, though very cold in Denmark, is not ſo ſharp as in ſome places of Germany, though ſituated much more to the ſouth; the vapours of the ſea ſurrounding it, melting

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melting and diſſolving the nitrous particles, carried by the wind from northern countries, before they arrive here. The ſoil, though in moſt places barren and mountainous, has good paſtures, which feed vaſt herds of kine, and an excellent race of horſes; but the country in general produces but little corn. It has no rivers navigable for veſſels of any conſiderable burthen. There are lakes, which afford a good quantity of fiſh; and the foreſts are abundantly ſtocked with veniſon of all ſorts, and wild-fowl in great plenty. Its commodities for exportation are very few; cattle is the chief, which they ſell to the Netherlands; but as for manufactures, they have ſo few as not to deſerve notice.

Copenhagen, in the iſland of Zealand, is the capital of the kingdom, and is ſo called from its ſafe and commodious harbour, the name ſignifying the Merchant's port; and, indeed, it may juſtly be reckoned, in all reſpects, one of the beſt in the whole world. The chief trade of Denmark is carried on here, though there is ſome at Elſineur. But the trade of either of theſe cities is ſmall, in compariſon of that on the reſt of the Baltic. Goods which ſell beſt in Denmark, are ſalt, chiefly that of Spain and Portugal, rather than of France; but the wines and brandies of France are the moſt eſteemed. Great quantities of paper are alſo imported; gold and ſilver ſtuffs; ſilk and woollen ſtuffs, chiefly thoſe of Holland; with ſpiceries and drugs. Tallow, hemp, cod, ſtock-fiſh, wheat and rye, are the chief commodities they export from Zealand.

This country enjoys the ſingular advantage of a ſea-coaſt, for the encouragement of navigation, and their king by that means has a tolerable good fleet; yet they have only the port of Copenhagen that is conſiderable; and ſome have aſſerted, that they ſcarce ever loaded one ſhip with their own productions and manufactures, to any part of the world. At preſent, indeed, in imitation of many other powers of Europe, they ſeem to give more than ordinary attention to the affairs of commerce and navigation, as well in the Eaſt Indies as in Europe; and their merchants begin to increaſe, not only at Copenhagen, but at Altena, near Hamburgh, who, indeed, are not, properly ſpeaking, to be called merchants of Denmark, though many of them are Danes. They are admirably ſituated for the fiſheries, great and ſmall; that is, for the herring-fiſhery, and for the North Sea cod-fiſhing, which is on their own coaſt; and for the whale-fiſhery in Greenland;

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Greenland; but they do not ſeem to exert themſelves in any but the whale-fiſhery, and that to no great degree; as, on the contrary they buy their herrings, train-oil, and whalebone of the Dutch; ſo indolent have they been till lately, and ſo averſe to trade, that, though the beſt harponiers, and the beſt ſteerſmen, and moſt ſkilled in the whale-fiſhing, are found among the ſubjects of the king of Denmark, yet they generally go to Greenland in the ſervice of the Dutch, the Bremeners, or the Hamburghers.

By the means of Norway, now ſubject to the crown of Denmark, they ſupply Great Britain, Holland, France, and Spain, with ſo great a quantity of fir-timber, deals, &c. that they load thereby upwards of two thouſand ſhips a year, and return ſeven-eighths, at leaſt, of the value in ready money. And ſome have complained in England of this timber trade being very detrimental to us; becauſe we ſhould rather encourage our own navigation, by building large bulky ſhips, ſuch as are uſed by the Danes and Swedes, in order to import our own timber from New England, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland.

In the hiſtory of theſe northern countries, mention being frequently made of the Baltic, we ſhall here, with ſome propriety, give an account of it, and the origin and nature of the toll paid at the Sound.

Baltic Sea, and toll paid at the Sound.

The Baltic is an inland, or Mediterranean Sea, ſo called from an ancient High Dutch word, Belt, ſignifying *a ſtrait* or *narrow ſpace*; ſo that the Baltic Sea is no more than the Belt Sea, or Narrow Sea. The opening of this ſea into the ocean is called by the Dutch and us, the North Sea, as the farther and inmoſt parts are called the Eaſt Seas. The part called the North Sea, being the entrance of the Baltic, lies between the Skaw, or Scagh, on the ſouth, and the Naze of Norway on the north. About two hundred miles from the Naze eaſt, and in the middle of the channel of this north ſea, ſtand the iſlands of Denmark, ten in number, and in a kind of cluſter, as if they were thruſt together by the ſtream in the very entrance of the Baltic Sea. They block up indeed the paſſages, ſo as to leave no way into or out of the Baltic, but through ſome of the channels between them; the principal of which is called the Sound, paſſing between the iſland of Zealand and the country of Schonen in Sweden.

The loſs of Schonen, though conſiderable to the Danes, in regard to the largeneſs and fruitfulneſs of the province, was yet more ſo, in reſpect to the dominion of this great paſſage.

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paſſage. For, though the Danes, by the treaty of peace, have expreſly retained their title to it, and receive toll from all ſhips that paſs, except thoſe of the Swedes, yet they do not eſteem the ſecurity of that title ſo firm as they could wiſh; for, not being maſters of the land on both ſides, they may have the right, but not the power, to aſſert it upon occaſion; and ſeem only to enjoy it according to their good behaviour; their ſtronger neighbours, the Swedes, being able to make uſe of the firſt opportunity given them to their prejudice.

As to the original and nature of this toll, it is ſaid to have been, at firſt, laid by the conſent of the traders into the Baltic, who were willing to allow a ſmall matter for each ſhip that paſſed, towards maintaining of lights on certain places of that coaſt, for the better direction of ſailors in dark nights. Hereupon this paſſage of the Sound became the moſt uſed; that other of the Great Belt being in a little time quite neglected, as well becauſe of the great inconveniency of thoſe lights to ſhips paſſing in and out of the Eaſt Sea, as becauſe of an agreement made, that no ſhip ſhould paſs the other way, that all might pay their ſhares; it being unreaſonable, that ſuch ſhips ſhould have the advantage of thoſe lights in dark or ſtormy winter nights, who avoided paying towards maintaining thoſe fires, by paſſing another way in good weather.

Beſides, if this manner of avoiding the payment had been allowed, the revenue would have been ſo inſignificant, conſidering the ſmall ſum each ſhip was to pay, that the lights could not have been maintained by it; and the Danes were not willing to be at the charge, ſolely for the uſe of their own trading ſhips, becauſe they were maſters of ſo few as made it not worth their while; the Lubeckers, Dantzickers, and merchants of other Hanſe Towns, being the greateſt traders at that time in the northern parts of Europe, by which they arrived to a great height of power and riches; but there being no fixed rule or treaty to be governed by, with regard to the different bulk of the ſhips belonging to ſo many different nations, the Danes began, in proceſs of time, to grow arbitrary, and exacted ſmaller or greater ſums, according to the ſtrength or weakneſs of thoſe they had to deal with, or according to their friendſhip or diſcontent with thoſe princes or ſtates to whom the ſeveral ſhips belonged: therefore, the emperor Charles V. to aſcertain this toll, concluded a treaty with the king of Denmark, which was ſigned at Spire upon the Rhine, and was in behalf

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behalf of his ſubjects of the Netherlands, who had a great traffic in the Baltic; and agreed, that, as a toll-cuſtom in the Sound, every ſhip of two hundred tons, and under, ſhould pay two roſe-nobles at its entrance into, or return from the Baltic; and every ſhip above two hundred tons, three roſe-nobles. A roſe-noble is worth about eighteen ſhillings ſterling.

This agreement remained in force till ſuch time as the United Provinces ſhook off the Spaniſh yoke; and then the Danes, taking an advantage of thoſe wars, raiſed their toll to an extravagant rate, the troubleſome times not affording the Dutch leiſure to redreſs ſuch a miſchief. However, about the year 1600, they joined themſelves with the city of Lubec, in oppoſition to ſuch an extravagant toll as was taken from both of them; and from thenceforth the Dutch paid more or leſs, as fortune was favourable or adverſe to them; but generally little. In 1647, the firſt treaty was made between Denmark and the United Provinces, as ſovereigns, for this toll; and they were obliged to pay a certain ſum for each ſhip. This was to continue forty years; after which, if in the mean time no new treaty were made, that of Spire was to be in force. This treaty of 1647, expired in 1687, and the Danes agreed to make an interim treaty, till ſuch time as the many differences between them and the Hollanders, in this and other matters, could be adjuſted at leiſure, and concluded by a more laſting andſolemn one. This interim-treaty, which was but for four years, expired in 1691; ſo that no new treaty being made and completed during that term, the ancient treaty of Spire remains in force, and no other.

The treaties of the Engliſh with Denmark are grounded on thoſe between the Dutch and that kingdom, and have reference to them, with a covenant, that we ſhall be treated as a nation in the ſtricteſt friendſhip with the Danes. The French have an advantage over other nations in paſſing the Sound, that their goods are not inſpected; nor need they, if they will, pay the cuſtoms till three months after, on the maſter's declaration and bill of lading.

From this ſhort hiſtory, it appears how ſlightly grounded the king of Denmark's title is to this right; which, from an eaſy contribution the merchants choſe to pay for their own conveniency, and whereof the king of Denmark was only treaſurer or truſtee, to ſee it fairly laid out for the common uſe, is grown to be a heavy impoſition upon trade,

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trade, as well as a kind of ſervile acknowlegement of his ſovereignty of thoſe ſeas; and is purely owing to his taking an advantage of the difficulties of the Hollanders during their wars with Spain, and the connivance of king James I. in prejudice of the Engliſh, he favouring the Danes upon account of his marriage to a daughter of that crown; and upon theſe two examples, all the leſſer ſtates were forced to ſubmit.

Nor is it conceivable how it could be otherwiſe brought about, ſince it is very well known, that the paſſage of the Sound is not the only one into the Baltic, there being two others, called the Greater and the Leſſer Belt: the former is ſo commodious and large, that during the wars between the Danes and the Swedes, the whole Dutch fleet choſe to paſs through it, and continued in it for four or five months together; and the Daniſh ſtrength at ſea never appeared yet ſo formidable as to oblige the Engliſh and Dutch to chuſe which paſſage it pleaſed. Beſides, the breadth of the Sound, in the narroweſt part, is four Engliſh miles over, and every where of a ſufficient depth; ſo that the king of Denmark's caſtles could not command the Channel, when he was maſter of both ſides, much leſs now he has but one. It is plain, therefore, this pretended ſovereignty is very precarious, being partly founded upon a breach of truſt, as well as on the careleſſneſs of ſome princes concerned in it, to the great injury of trade.

This toll affords the king yearly a conſiderable profit, though much leſs than formerly. About the year 1640, it produced two hundred and forty thouſand rixdollars per annum; but, ſince 1645, it has not yielded above eighty thouſand; and, in 1691, it did not extend to full ſeventy thouſand.

Hiſtory and conſtitution of Denmark.

The firſt inhabitants of Scandinavia, comprehending Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, deſcended from the Scythians, who had no fixed habitations. When they firſt ſettled in towns is uncertain. The Cimbri, a German nation, next poſſeſſed themſelves of Jutland, which from thence obtained the name of the Cimbrian Cherſoneſe. The Teutones, another tribe of Germans, reduced Zealand, Funen, and the reſt of the Daniſh iſlands. The Jutes and Angles ſucceeded the Cimbri in the Cherſoneſe, and from the Jutes this peninſula obtained the name of Jutland. In the fourth century, we find the inhabitants of theſe countries, and the north-weſt of Germany, called Saxons, a people very terrible to the Roman provinces of

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Gaul and Britain. They invaded and plundered the ſea-coaſts, and obliged the Romans to ſtation their forces on theſe coaſts, which were commanded by an officer, ſtyled Comes litoris Saxonici; but the Saxons were not able to fix themſelves in Britain till the decline of the Roman empire; when Vortigern, king of South Britain, invited them over about the year 450, to defend his country againſt the Picts and Scots. After they had repulſed thoſe northern invaders, they quarrelled with the Britons who called them in, and at length made themſelves entire maſters of South Britain.

Saxony, of which Denmark was then deemed a part, was at that time divided among ſeveral petty ſovereigns and ſtates, who were all united under Geſtrius, their firſt king, about the year 797. The Danes and Normans, or Norwegians, invaded and harraſſed the coaſts of Gaul and Britain in the eighth century, and continued their incurſions till the year 1012; when Swain, king of Denmark, made an entire conqueſt of England, and left it to his ſon Canute, who was king of England, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, in the year 1020. The Danes and Normans alſo invaded France, entered the rivers Seine and Loire in their boats, burnt and plundered the country to the gates of Paris, about the ſame time they had reduced England; and the French were, at length, obliged to yield up Normandy and Britany to Rollo, the Norman general, to preſerve the reſt of the kingdom.

The kingdoms of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, were after this governed by diſtinct ſovereigns; but Denmark and Norway became united again by the marriage of Haquin, king of Norway, with Margaret, daughter and heireſs of Waldemar, king of Denmark, in 1376. Margaret II. queen of Denmark and Norway, ſubdued Sweden about the year 1390; and Sweden was ſubject to Denmark, till Guſtavus Erickſon reſcued his country from their dominion in 1525. Chriſtiern II. was then upon the throne of Denmak, but having drawn upon himſelf the contempt and hatred of the Danes, as well as of the Swedes, on account of his ſuffering himſelf to be governed by his concubine, he was at length depoſed, his uncle Frederic, duke of Holſtein, being elected and advanced to the throne of Denmark in his ſtead.

This prince, by confirming the great priviles of the nobility and clergy, maintained himſelf in poſſeſſion of the kingdom to the time of his death, which happened after a reign of ten years, and left the crown to his ſon

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Chriſtiern III. in whoſe time the Reformation took place, and the Lutheran religion was eſtabliſhed by law in this country. Frederic II. ſucceeded his father in 1558, and was engaged in a long war with Sweden, which ended, however, in 1570, by a peace concluded under the mediation of the emperor and the kings of France and Poland; he died in 1588, when his ſon Chriſtiern IV. aſcended the throne. This monarch governed much longer than any of his predeceſſors, and in times full of calamity and trouble. Frederic III. his ſucceſſor, was engaged by the Dutch to break with the Swedes in 1657, which had like to have proved fatal to him; for Charles Guſtavus of Sweden laid ſiege to Copenhagen, and, had it not been for the powerful interpoſition of the Dutch, would, very probably, have taken the city, which he reduced to great extremities. At this juncture, however, it was, that the king, who, notwithſtanding his misfortunes, was certainly as wiſe and brave a prince as any of his time, found means to change the conſtitution of Denmark, and, from one of the moſt limited and precarious, made it the moſt abſolute ſovereignty in Europe. According to their old form of government, the whole power of the nation was lodged in the gentry or nobility, for between theſe there was, in thoſe times, no diſtinction; every gentleman was a kind of prince in his own eſtate, and the farmers and countrymen were very little better than ſlaves. They ſent, however, their repreſentatives to the general diet, where they had ſcarce any thing more to do than to give their conſent to taxes, by which they were oppreſſed to ſuch a degree, that they might be juſtly eſteemed the moſt wretched people upon earth. The nobility formed a diſtinct body in the ſtates of the kingdom, and without their advice, the king could do nothing of importance; ſo, that in time of peace, he was very little better than preſident of the council, and in time of war no more than general of the army. The ſucceſſion of the crown, too, was very precarious; for, though the ſon ſucceeded the father, yet it was by the conſent of the nobility; ſo that the monarchy was ſtrictly ſpeaking, elective, though in appearance, hereditary. It is not at all wonderful that a king ſhould be extremely uneaſy in ſuch circumſtances, or that he ſhould deſire to fix himſelf and his family in an eaſier ſituation; but it is truly amazing, that, after loſing a part of his dominions, and under circumſtances of the greateſt diſtreſs, a king ſhould be able to do this without any foreign force, without bloodſhed,

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and in leſs than a week's time; which, however, was what this prince projected, and happily atchieved by the interpoſition of the commons, whoſe condition could not be worſe under the government of a ſingle perſon, than under ſuch a variety of tyrants. The king governed after this with great wiſdom and prudence ten years, and died univerſally beloved by his ſubjects, whoſe affections he gained by many acts of liberality, and by taking care that juſtice ſhould be duly and ſpeedily adminiſtered.

His ſon Chriſtiern V. ſucceeded in 1670, and having put his affairs into very good order, and made ſeveral powerful alliances, he reſolved to lay hold of this opportunity to recover part of what his predeceſſors had loſt to the Swedes; but that he might be in a better condition to do this, he reſolved to make himſelf maſter, firſt, of the perſon of the duke of Holſtein, in which he ſucceeded, but with very little advantage to his reputation; for the duke, ſuſpecting nothing, in 1675, came to Renſbourg to viſit him, and was there ſeized and put under a guard, till ſuch time as he conſented to relinquiſh the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roſchild; after which, the king made himſelf maſter of Tonningen, the ſtrongeſt place in his dominions, and purſuing his advantage, reduced Wiſmar likewiſe. He had alſo ſome ſucceſs in the beginning of the next year, but his good fortune did not continue long; for, being defeated by the Swedes, in the famous battle of Lunden, he was from that time never able to do much againſt them by land, though by ſea he was fortunate; but at laſt made peace with that crown upon equal terms. He afterwards employed his forces againſt the city of Hamburgh, upon which the kings of Denmark always had pretenſions, which, twice in his reign, he had made turn to good account. In the year 1694, on the death of the duke of Holſtein Gottorp, his Daniſh majeſty formed two claims upon that family, which were, for ſome time adjuſted by the mediation of the emperor, and the kings of Great Britain and Sweden, William III. and Charles XII. whoſe ſiſter the duke of Holſtein had eſpouſed. But in the laſt years of his life theſe diſturbances broke out again, and things were on the point of coming to a rupture, when the king died in the month of September, 1699.

His ſon and ſucceſſor Frederic IV. acted preciſely on his father's principles, and reſolved to compel the dukes of Holſtein to remain dependent on the kings of Denmark for the future; in order to which, he over-ran that country;

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country; and undertook the ſiege of Tonningen, which gave occaſion to the long war in the North at the beginning of the preſent century. The Engliſh and Dutch, as guarantees of the late peace, ſent a powerful fleet into the Baltic, and the king of Sweden, at the ſame time, beſieged Copenhagen, ſo that the Danes were obliged to conclude the famous treaty of Travendahl, on the 18th of Auguſt, 1700. It was ſtipulated in this treaty, that the houſe of Holſtein ſhould, for the future, enjoy the ſame rights with other ſovereigns; that the duke ſhould be at liberty to raiſe troops, and build forts in his own dominions, provided they were two miles diſtant from any fortreſs belonging to the Danes, and at leaſt a mile from their frontiers. It was likewiſe agreed, that the crown of Denmark ſhould pay the duke of Holſtein two hundred and fifty thouſand crowns, and that the chapter of Lubec ſhould be at liberty to elect a prince of Holſtein for their biſhop.

In 1712, the king of Denmark, availing himſelf of the misfortunes of Charles XII. took the town of Stade and the duchy of Bremen; but the ſame year his army was beaten by the Swedes, who afterwards burnt the fine town of Altena to the ground. In 1714, and 1715, he had great ſucceſs againſt the Swedes both by ſea and land; and, in 1716, he drove them entirely out of the places they had conquered in Norway, and, in conjunction with the Pruſſians, reduced Wiſmar; after which he did not puſh the war with the ſame vigour for many reaſons, but chiefly becauſe he ſaw that his ſucceſs would be leſs advantageous to himſelf than to his allies. This made him the more inclinable to peace, which was concluded under the mediation of George I. king of Great Britain, in 1720. By this treaty, his Daniſh majeſty obtained all that he could reaſonably expect; and, which to him was a matter of great conſequence, he procured the guarantee of the king of France for the poſſeſſion of the duchy of Sleſwic, and the king of Great Britain renewed his, which had been given before.

His ſon, king Chriſtiern the Sixth, aſcended the throne of his anceſtors with univerſal reputation. He had, in his father's life-time, been very attentive to the concerns of the Eaſt India company, and had been in a great meaſure the ſupport of it; which induced the people to hope that a particular regard for trade would be the principal view of his reign; and ſo, indeed, it proved. At his very acceſſion to the government he made many

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changes, but all of them ſuch as gave great ſatisfaction to his ſubjects. In 1732, he acceded to the treaty between the courts of Vienna and Peterſburg, by which he obtained their guarantee for his own, and became himſelf guarantee for their dominions, and of the Pragmatic Sanction. In virtue of a ſeparate article of this treaty, the king obliged himſelf to pay the duke of Holſtein a million of rixdollars, provided he renounced his pretenſions on the duchy of Sleſwic. In fine, during the courſe of ſixteen years that he reigned, he never fell into one falſe ſtep againſt the intereſts of his crown, or to the prejudice of his ſubjects; ſo that, as no prince of his time was more beloved or better obeyed while living, hardly any at their death have been more ſincerely or univerſally lamented.

His ſon Frederick V. ſucceeded him, July 26, 1746, in the 23d year of his age. He eſpouſed, about three years before, the princeſs Louiſa of Great Britain, by whom he had Chriſtian, born January 29, 1749: his queen died December 19, 1751. This king ſteadily purſued his father's maxims in maintaining peace, improving the trade, and encouraging the induſtry of his ſubjects. His application to buſineſs, joined to a conſtant and well-regulated œconomy, enabled him not only to live within the bounds of his revenue, but to make conſiderable ſavings. It is incredible to what a degree the face of affairs had been changed within the time of his own and his father's prudent adminiſtration. New ports were opened, which was owing to the opening of new channels of trade; the ſhipping of the Danes was more than doubled and the revenues of the crown were increaſed in the ſame proportion within that ſmall ſpace; the court was ſplendid without profuſion, the king rich without oppreſſion; the miniſters attentive to the duties of their reſpective ſtations, not only from the example of their maſter, but from the ſenſe they had that a contrary behaviour would infallibly draw upon them immediate diſgrace. Adored at home, and reſpected abroad, the king was chiefly attentive to preſerve and promote the happineſs of his ſubjects, in which he placed his own.

Towards the cloſe of the late German war, Denmark was ſomewhat alarmed by the diſputes with the houſe of Holſtein, which might have had ſerious conſequences, if the Ruſſian emperor, Peter III. had lived to execute his intentions; but his death put an end to them for the preſent.

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preſent. In this critical ſituation, the king of Denmark acted with prudence and circumſpection, and though he ſhewed he was well diſpoſed to compromiſe matters upon moderate terms, he diſcovered, at the ſame time, by the armaments made, that he was in a condition, in caſe of being attacked, to defend himſelf.

The Danes have been formerly eſteemed a very warlike nation, and though from the misfortunes in their wars with the Swedes, their power is much diminiſhed; yet the credit of the Daniſh troops is ſtill very good. The forces the king keeps up are very well paid and diſciplined, and are numerous enough to ſecure his dominions againſt any invaſion, more eſpecially as his fleet is in excellent order, and as the Daniſh ſeamen and the Norwegians are juſtly reputed the beſt in the North.

The laws of this country have been deſervedly in reputation, as lying within a very narrow compaſs, and the adminiſtration of juſtice is ſo well looked after, that ſuits in this country are but few, and thoſe very ſpeedily determined. The king makes and repeals ſuch laws as to him appear neceſſary for the good of his ſubjects; but the crown has always uſed its power with much moderation and diſcretion: ſo that as Denmark may be ſaid to be the only legal abſolute government in Europe, perhaps, in the world, the people have had leſs reaſon to regret the change made by themſelves than could well have been expected; and if their monarchs copy his example, the Danes will feel fewer evils from the want of liberty, than in other nations are produced by the abuſe of it.

SECT. XV.

Of Great Britain and Ireland, the principal of the European Iſlands.

Situation, diviſions, and extent of Great Britain.

THE iſland of Great Britain lies in longitude (Teneriff being the meridian) between 9¾ and 17¾ deg. and between 50 and 59 deg. of north latitude. The ſouthern diviſion of this iſland, or that part of it called England, is bounded by Scotland on the north; the German Sea, which ſeparates it from Germany and the Netherlands, on the eaſt; by the Engliſh Channel, which divides it from France, on the ſouth; and by St. George's Channel, which ſeparates it from Ireland, on the weſt. It is three

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hundred and ſixty miles from north to ſouth, and three hundred in breadth from eaſt to weſt, in the wideſt part.

The northern diviſion, called Scotland, is bounded on the ſouth by the Iriſh Sea and England; on the eaſt, by the German Ocean; on the north, by the Deucaledonian Sea; and on the weſt, by the Atlantic Ocean: it is about two hundred and fifteen Scotch miles in length; and in breadth, in the wideſt part, about one hundred and forty.

Situation and extent of Ireland. Ireland, ſituated between longitude 5 deg. 40 min. and 10 deg. 37 min. weſt from London, and between 51 deg. 16 min. and 55 deg. 20 min. of north latitude, is an iſland ſeparated from England and Scotland by St. George's channel on the eaſt; has the Scots weſtern iſlands on the north and north-eaſt; the mouth of St. George's Channel on the ſouth; and the Atlantic Ocean on the weſt. It is reckoned to be about three hundred miles in length, and one hundred and fifty in breadth, or to bear proportion to England and Wales as eighteen to thirty.

Other iſlands. A great number of ſmaller iſlands lie round Great Britain; ſome ſingle, as, the Iſle of Wight, the Iſle of Man, &c. others, as it were, in cluſters, as the Orkney Iſles, and other little ſlips, that are ſcattered all along the coaſts of Scotland.

Advantages in ſituation, &c. The three kingdoms have, on all ſides, very convenient harbours, and are accommodated with navigable rivers in abundance, which convey to them the riches of the ſea and of foreign nations. The advantage of the ſea ſurrounding them, as it is a ſecurity againſt enemies, ſo it is alſo againſt the violent colds to which the climate would otherwiſe be expoſed; for the tides and conſtant motion of the ſea ſend us in a kindly ſort of vapour, which qualifies the natural ſharpneſs of the air, even to ſuch a degree, that, in ſome parts of France and Italy, they feel more of the winter than we do in England. The ſoil in England and Ireland doth, in a great meaſure, owe its fertility to the ſame cauſe; the vapours not only mollifying the air, and by that means nouriſhing every vegetable, but they alſo furniſh us with gentle ſhowers in their proper ſeaſons; inſomuch, that our anceſtors believed theſe muſt needs be the Fortunate Iſlands, ſo much talked of by the ancients; as having, of all others, the beſt claim to thoſe natural bleſſings and delights, with which they made them abound. It cannot be well determined, whether it was more the courage and vigour of theſe weſterly inhabitants, than any natural cauſe, which gave riſe to the

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the opinion, that, the farther weſt we go, the conſtitutions of the people are more firm, and their courage greater.

That part of Great Britain which lies towards the Weſtern Ocean is mountainous, as Cornwall, Wales, and many large tracts of Scotland; but the inner parts are, generally, a plain champaign country, abounding with corn and paſture. The moſt remarkable mountain, as it may be called, is that continued ridge which runs from ſouth to north, dividing, as it were, the whole iſland into the eaſt and weſt parts, and is by ſome writers called the Engliſh Apennine. *Face of the country.*

The inhabitants of the ſeveral parts are of a different original: thoſe of Cornwall and Wales are, in a great meaſure, the poſterity of the ancient Britons; who, upon the invaſion, firſt of the Picts, and then of the Saxons, betook themſelves to thoſe mountainous corners and outſkirts; and have ever ſince preſerved both their language, and many of their families, from any mixture of foreigners. Of late years, indeed, the Corniſh are come over to the Engliſh language, modes, and ways of living; and the Welch are not leſs polite. The Scots are originally Iriſh, but not without a mixture of Picts; who, though they were ſubdued by the former, and fell under their government, could not yet be entirely cut off, any more than the conquered uſually are in other kingdoms. Bede, Camden, Uſher, Stillingfleet, and many other hiſtorians, are very poſitive, that the weſt parts of Scotland were peopled from Ireland; and the Iriſh, which is their language, puts it beyond all diſpute; but the exact time when this did happen is a point the learned ſtill differ about; while the natives are fond of their own extraordinary antiquity, and their neighbours will nor ſuffer them to run up their original too high. As for England, though the Britons were for many hundred years in full poſſeſſion of it, and, after that, the Romans made a conſiderable figure among us, yet we cannot well imagine there is much of the blood of either nation among us at this day. The real Britons indeed, may, with ſome reaſon, value themſelves upon their deſcent from the Romans, with whom, in ſuch a great length of time, they could not but have frequent intermarriages, and ſo incorporate themſelves, as it were, into one people. This they may inſiſt upon with more reaſon, and leſs vanity, than ſome among them do, who are fond of deriving their origin from the Trojans, at firſt hand; but whoever conſiders how the foreign wars, under the late emperors, cleared *Original of the inhabitants.*

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this kingdom of the Romans, and how the prevailing power of the Saxons swept off the miserable Britons, will have but a mean opinion of our title to a descent from either. It is true, we have more of the Roman language to shew than the Welch have; but we have had it at second hand only, from the Normans; whereas the remains these produce have been derived to them from age to age, ever since their mutual correspondence with the Romans; so that the Saxons, and likewise the Danes, who for many years over-ran the whole kingdom, and the Normans who conquered it, are the principal ingredients of the English nation at this day.

And, as we are a compound of the northern nations, and of the Norman, with French, so we seem to retain something of the temper and humour of both, keeping a mean between the two: the Frenchman is brisk, gay, and airy; the Hollander and German inactive, heavy, and unweildy; the Englishman has neither so much of the first qualities, as to carry him to levity, nor of the second, so as to make him fairly chargeable with dulness; his fancy does not out-run his judgment, nor his judgment suppress his fancy: this difference is very remarkable in two particulars, war and learning; in war, what more notorious than the slowness of the Germans, the quickness of the French, and the firmness and bravery of the English? In learning, nothing is more apparent than the bulks of lectures, comments, and common-places, which the first have given us; the little whimsies, airy sallies, and pert essays, we have had from the second; and the solid argument, substantial matter, and true philosophy, from the last. The French, indeed, have done great honour to learning under the protection of Lewis XIV. who established a more lasting name by his eminent patronage of it, than by the progress of his arms; they have also this advantage, that their language being understood in most parts of Europe, conveys their learning as far as it reaches. Could but our English tongue be settled in as many parts of the world, or would our great men make themselves masters of the Latin tongue, and write in a language so universally known, our books would undoubtedly make their own way; they would carry instruction abroad, and bring reputation to our own kingdom.

But, in the main point of view we propose to consider our present matter in, when it is duly considered what quantity of shipping and water-craft of every kind are employed

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employed in our home coaſting trade round our iſlands; and likewiſe the ſhipping employed to and from Great Britain and Ireland, to the colonies in America; and what quantity the colonies employ among themſelves; when theſe points are well weighed, our ſeamen and tonnage of ſhipping would, perhaps, intitle us to the character of a maritime power, though we had no commerce with other nations. Yet, if we had no commerce with other nations, and our neighbouring potentates had, and a commerce ſo wiſely regulated that they were conſtant gainers by it; and we only carried on a domeſtic trade with our own territories; ſhould we not be at a kind of ſtand, with regard to wealth and power, while other nations were daily increaſing both? Was this the ſtate of things, would it be poſſible to maintain ourſelves an independent people? Muſt we not always be at the mercy of our moſt potent neighbours, and become vaſſals to their will?

Commercial concerns, and intereſts of Great Britain and Ireland.

Let any man converſant with the world, paſs but a tranſient reflection on the ſtate of mankind throughout the globe, and he will find, that ſcarce any thing prevails, but a confederacy of civil, eccleſiaſtical, and military power againſt the liberties and properties of the whole human ſpecies, except in the little ſpots called Great Britain and Ireland, and their dependent dominions. And was it not the advancement of the commerce of this nation in the days of our great queen Elizabeth, that firſt enabled us to oppoſe thoſe chains of ſlavery which were ſo reſolutely forged for us in Spain? And has not our trade and navigation, ever ſince, been the only means, whereby we could keep pace with our enemies in riches and power, in order to defend ourſelves againſt that tyranny and oppreſſion, to which almoſt the whole world is liable? Can any man conſider theſe indiſputable facts, and heſitate a moment, whether our trade is not ſtill the only means left us, whereby we can protect ourſelves from that bondage wherein other ſtates are involved? Now, as this converſe with the world is the honeſt way to ſtrengthen and enrich a nation, and the great diſcourager of idleneſs and debauchery; and as we are ſituated by nature, and have geniuſes proper for its cultivation, ought we not to make it our ſtudy to manage it to its higheſt capacity of advancement? which if we would in earneſt purſue, war itſelf would be ſuch an advantage and ſecurity to us, that we ſhould not only be out of danger from our enemies,

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mies, but command the trade of the world; and, on the contrary, if that be neglected, all the miſeries attendant on ſlavery and poverty, that ſhall happen to the nation, may be aſcribed to our own improvidence and inactivity.

We ſee every day, that the convenient ſituation of any eſtate gives an eſtimate, and raiſes its purchaſe; and, without convenience, life itſelf would be but a mere ſpiration, ſcarce worth the valuing: Great Britain and Ireland then, moſt certainly deſerve to be valued and preferred to all nations on the earth, having both to ſo great advantage.

They are iſlands placed as a centre to the circular globe, towards which, trade may draw a line from the whole circumference: they are bleſſed with a moderation of every element: no torrid zone ſcorches, nor frigid zone benumbs their natives, but a medium influence ſtrengthens and beautifies their inhabitants, who are of regular ſhapes; neither an unwieldy nor pygmy breed, but fit to endure the toils of war, or peaceful labours on the land; our climate is ſo moderate, that the ſun neither exhales, nor the cold phlegmatiſes the ſpirituous parts, but allows a temperature between both; ſo that our native imaginations are neither too airy for conſideration, nor too dull for invention; the ſoil is highly prolific, and where barrenneſs appears on the ſurface, the bowels are enriched with valuable mines. No Alpine mountains, nor Holland bogs, but a delightful variety of hills and dales compaſs the land; ſo that, when the parching ſun burns up and chops the higher lands, the humble meadows thrive with verdure; and when mighty ſhowers drown the vales, the hills grow fruitful by watering; our lands, when tilled, produce a grateful plenty in return to labour; our trees in general are lofty and well topped, and afford us all the conveniencies we can expect; our kingly oaks ſo firmly rib our ſhips, that our royal navy will ever prove an invincible bulwark againſt any daring foe; our fruits are pleaſant and uſeful; our cattle large, healthy, ſtrong and numerous, and as good as the world produces for labour or for food; their ſkins are firm and of ſuch contracted pores, that better leather is no where to be met with. Our wool is very good, and, if duly attended to, would equal the boaſted Segovia; it is the parent of our chief manufactures, and gives us a plaudit in our cloth throughout the univerſe. We have fowl in plenty, and that plenty good. In the boſom of our native earth are hid

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riches, which are eaſily obtained by the artiſt and laborious, as tin, lead, copper, iron, coals, &c. Our land is plentifully veined with rivers, refreſhing the earth, and affording variety and plenty of fiſh. In ſhort, the nation is a verdant field, indented with harbours around it, where our ſhips, from their natural ſituation, may ride out the tempeſtuous ſtorm.

The ſea, by Providence, is a wall which ſurrounds us, to defend us from the Pharaoh that would enſlave us. Beſides defence, it ſerves us for various purpoſes: for alſo by our ſhips furrowing its waves, we ſend plenty out, and bring the richeſt of the moſt diſtant parts of the world into our poſſeſſions. It is wonderful alſo to think, how ſeveral ſorts of fiſh, in numbers innumerable, at certain ſeaſons, viſit our coaſt by divine appointment and natural inſtinct, for our ſuſtenance; and day by day are ready, not only to furniſh us with food, but alſo to be made merchandize of, to the enriching of the nation.

It is very obſervable, how heaven bleſſes us by the courſe of the wind, that commonly blows weſterly for above half of the year, which makes all our cape lands and bays, oppoſite to the French and Dutch coaſts, good roads for our ſhips to ride with ſecurity; for we are on the weather, and the French on the lee-ſhore; beſides, our anchor-hold is much better than either the French or Dutch; for we have generally a ſtiff clay, chalk, or hard gravel, whilſt the French have only hard rocks or looſe ſands; and the Flemings and Hollanders a greater number of ſands on their coaſts, their water of leſs depth, and conſequently their ports choaked up with quick-ſands; when our ſhips ride ſafe, even between our ſands, by our country's being a weather-ſhore.

Thus, in epitome, we ſee what a rich heireſs, with an immenſe fortune we enjoy, by the gift of the great Father of the univerſe; but we ſhould conſider, when this portion was given, gratitude and duty were expected, that it might deſcend as a jointure to our poſterity.

Linens are the ſtaple manufactures of Scotland and Ireland; and the encouragement of the linens and fiſheries of the former, and the linens of the latter, can in no reſpect be injurious to England; but it is highly to the diſadvantage of England to ſupport either the French, the German, or the Dutch linens; becauſe the balance is highly againſt her with the two former, and ſo likewiſe with Holland. We ſhall here ſay nothing of the clandeſtine trade of wool carried on by Ireland with France,

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as we muſt naturally ſuppoſe that the extention lately granted their trade, will effectually put a ſtop to ſuch practice.

Within now about forty years, the poſſibility of Iriſh linens arriving at their preſent perfection was looked upon as chimerical, and was treated as ſuch; in the capital conteſt about taking off the drawback upon the re-exportation of foreign linens; but fact and experience have demonſtrated, that ſome worthy gentlemen were miſtaken in their foreſight. Not are the linen manufactures the only point wherein thoſe people, as well as the Scots, have wonderfully improved within theſe twenty years, but the Iriſh have really made conſiderable improvements in divers other eſſential particulars, as in the raiſing of hops, corn, and turnips; in marling, gravelling, and liming land; in the draining of bogs; in making butter and cheeſe; in ſpinning baize yarn; in rearing calves, and in working mines. Wherefore, from the extraordinary ſpirit of induſtry and zeal for the advancement of commerce in that country, we may hope to ſee their linens equal thoſe of any foreign country whatſoever. The wonderful improvements alſo, that have been made in Scotland, are no way inferior; and we have reaſon to expect, that the fiſheries likewiſe will there increaſe, to the entire ſatisfaction of the united kingdoms.

The French are the greateſt rivals in our manufactures; but let care be taken to prevent their being ſupplied with wool from England and Ireland, and we ſhall ſoon ſee an alteration therein. It is true, they have wool of their own; but they cannot work it, ſo as to injure us at foreign markets, without ours or Iriſh. As this will be laying the axe to the root of the French commerce, does it not become the wiſdom of the nation to think ſeriouſly of what ſo nearly and importantly concerns us?

Experience has ſufficiently convinced us, that war is not the way to put it out of the power of France to hurt us. Were we to exert the Britiſh bravery at the expence of a hundred millions more than we have done, it is certain, that under ſuch incumbrances, we ſhould grievouſly waſte ourſelves; but it is much to be doubted, whether we ſhould gain any permanent advantage over France. For the art of war is now become a ſcience, and indeed, a trading one; and France is often obliged to give their military people diverſion abroad, leſt they ſhould be troubleſome at home. War, therefore, every ten or twenty years ſeems to be neceſſary to that nation; but is not

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not ſo to us, unleſs defenſively. When the ſword is drawn, beſides thoſe who immediately engage, do we not ſee other potentates, from various views and inſtigations, drawn in on either ſide; and what was at firſt a conteſt only between two, comes at laſt to involve twenty? Wherefore let us deal with France, and indeed, with all other nations, by the peaceable arm of commerce; let us beat them by our ſuperior induſtry in the acquiſition of ſuch uſeful arts as will not only employ our own people, but invite all hither who are oppreſſed in other countries; for plenty of people and of uſeful arts yield beneficial employment, and will give us ſuch power, that no nation, nor any confederacy, will dare to inſult us.

It is the maintaining the Britiſh empire in this ſituation, that ought to be the ſole point of view to our ſtateſmen and patriots, as of old among the Greeks and Romans. Our conſtitution, like theirs, is of a mixed nature; but one may, without partiality or vanity, affirm, that it is more happlily compounded; ſo that majeſty and liberty treſpaſs not upon each other, the prerogative of the prince being without reſtraint, where it may be exerted for his ſubjects good, and the paramount prerogative being this, that the crown can do no hurt. It is moſt evident, therefore, that, at this day, our princes can have no temptation to enterprize wars of conqueſt, as in former times; ſo that a true ſpirit of patriotiſm can never be ſhewn in oppoſing projects that will never be ſet on foot; and in this lies our great happineſs, that, having no views or pretenſions upon our neighbours, there is no ſolid, indeed, nor ſo much as a plauſible ground for us to hate them, or they us. This is the true fundamental principle of our policy, that, in reſpect to the affairs of the continent, we are not to be governed by any of thoſe temporary or accidental conveniencies, which very often, and that juſtly too, paſs for reaſons of ſtate in other kingdoms; but by this ſingle rule of their acting in conformity to our natural intereſts, ſo far as is conſiſtent with their own.

There is a diſtinction often made, chiefly by foreigners, between the intereſts and the commerce of Great Britain; but, in reality, this is a diſtinction without a difference; for the intereſt and commerce of the Britiſh empire are ſo inſeparably united, that they may be very well conſidered as one and the ſame. For commerce is that tie, by which the ſeveral, and even the moſt diſtant parts of the empire, are

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are connected and kept together, so as to be rendered parts of the same whole, and to receive not only countenance and protection, but warmth and nourishment from the vital parts of our government, of which, if we may be indulged so figurative an expression, our monarchy is the head, and our liberty the soul. Whatever, therefore, assists, promotes, and extends our commerce, is consistent with our interest; and whatever weakens, impairs, or circumscribes it, is repugnant thereto. We may easily, considering things in this light (and if we consider them in any other, we shall deceive ourselves), derive from thence a true notion of the interest of Great Britain, and be able to judge when that interest is really pursued, and when it is either neglected or abandoned.

We have omitted giving here any history of Great Britain and Ireland, and of their form of government, referring our readers to the particular History of each country in the Supplemental Volumes.

SECT. XV.

Of the other European Islands.

WE shall begin with those in the Atlantic Ocean, and the first that occur, are,

The AZORES,

DENOMINATED also the Terceras, and Western Islands. They are situate between 25 and 32 deg. of west longitude, and between 37 and 40 deg. north latitude, nine hundred miles west of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost in the midway between Europe and America. They are subject to Portugal. St. Michael's, the most easterly island, is the largest of the Azores, being near a hundred miles in circumference; a mountainous but fruitful country, abounding in corn, fruit, cattle, fish, and fowl. This island was twice invaded and plundered by the English, who got a considerable booty in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is esteemed the chief island on account of its having the best harbour, and a good town, where the governor of these islands resides, as well as the bishop. This too is a mountainous country, but has a great deal of good arable and pasture grounds, and an excellent breed of cattle. Here the Portuguese fleet constanly

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conſtantly put in, when they are homeward bound from Brazil, Africa, or the Eaſt Indies.

The FARO ISLANDS.

THE Faro Iſlands lie between Iceland and Scotland, and are ſubject to Denmark. They are very ſmall, and produce no corn. The inhabitants ſubſiſt chiefly on fiſh and wild fowl. There are alſo a great many ſmall iſlands on the coaſt of Norway, the chief of which are Malſtrom and Hiſteren.

ICELAND

IS ſituate between 10 and 20 deg. of weſt longitude, and 63 and 67 deg. of north latitude. The chief town is Skalholt, where the Daniſh governor reſides. It is a poor barren country, and yields the ſovereign little profit. The moſt remarkable thing in it is the volcano of mount Hecla. Corn will ſcarce grow in any part of this iſland; the inhabitants feed on the fleſh of bears, wolves, and foxes, and make bread of dried fiſh ground to powder. Few trees grow here but juniper-ſhrubs, birch, and willow. Their fiſh, with roots and herbs, are their greateſt dainties.

EAST GREENLAND

IS ſituate between 10 and 30 deg. of eaſt longitude, and 76 and 80 deg. of north latitude. It is claimed by Denmark, but uninhabited. The chief whale-fiſhery is on the coaſt, which the Dutch have in a great meaſure engroſſed to themſelves. Whether Eaſt Greenland be a continent or iſland, is uncertain; ſome imagine it to be contiguous to Weſt Greenland, but no man ever made the experiment.

WEST GREENLAND

IS ſituate between the meridian of London and 50 deg. weſt longitude, and between 60 and 75 deg. north latitude. It is inhabited by a barbarous people, among whom the Danes have ſent ſome miſſionaries to convert them to Chriſtianity; but there are no towns in the country, nor any product that will tempt ſtrangers to traffic with them. The fiſhery on the coaſt ſeems to be all that is worth contending for; and this the Dutch make very free with, notwithſtanding the repreſentations and menaces of the Danes upon that head. Weſt and Eaſt Greenland produce ſcarce any trees or herbage.

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Islands of the BALTIC SEA.

THE chief islands of the Baltic Sea, are, 1. Those belonging to Denmark, of which Zealand, the chief and the seat of the government, is a barren soil: no wheat will grow here, and there is but little good pasture; great part of it is a forest, and reserved for the king's game. Funen, the next largest island, has barely corn sufficient for the inhabitants. The island of Laland is a fruitful soil, and supplies Copenhagen with wheat. The islands of Langland, Falster, and Mona, are indifferently fruitful.

2. Gothland, Aland, and Rugen, are subject to Sweden. The last is part of Swedish Pomerania, separated from the continent by a narrow channel, not three miles over. The island is thirty miles long, and near as many broad, and is a plentiful country, abounding in corn and cattle; the chief town is Bergen, which has no wall, any more than the other towns, and consists of about four hundred houses.

3. Usedom and Wollin, subject to Prussia, which, by being possessed of them, commands the navigation of the Oder. The passage between these two islands is called the Swin.

4. Osel and Dagho, subject to Russia. They both lie opposite Livonia.

Islands of the MEDITERRANEAN SEA.

IVICA.

IVICA is situate fifty miles east of Valencia in Spain, and as many south-west of Majorca. It is about thirty miles long, and twenty-four broad; a mountainous country, the chief produce salt, of which they export large quantities. It is subject to Spain, with

MAJORCA.

MAJORCA, which is situate about eighty miles south of the coast of Catalonia, and one hundred miles east of Valencia. It is about sixty miles long, and forty-five broad. The country is mountainous, but produces corn, wine, oil, and fruit, and has several good harbours. This was the chief of those islands called by the ancients, Baleares, famous for their slingers.

MINORCA.

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MINORCA.

MINORCA is ſituate almoſt one hundred miles ſouth of the coaſt of Catalonia in Spain, and about twenty miles eaſt of the iſland of Majorca, is thirty miles long, and twelve broad, incumbered with barren hills, and only valuable for its ſecure and capacious harbour of Port Mahon, where the largeſt fleets may ride ſafe from tempeſts or enemies, the entrance being defended by platforms of guns, and forts ſtrongly fortified. The Engliſh made a conqueſt of it in the year 1708, which was confirmed to them by the peace of Utrecht, in 1713; and the harbour has ſince been of infinite ſervice to the Engliſh, as here they repaired their ſhips, and here the merchant ſhips lay in ſafety till they could can meet with convoys. In April, 1756, this iſland was invaded by thirteen thouſand French under the duke de Richelieu, who became maſters of the whole by the ſurrender of St. Philip's caſtle, June 29th following, after a ſiege of two months, having been bravely defended by the late lord Blakeney, the lieutenant-governor: Minorca was afterwards reſtored to the Engliſh by the definitive treaty of peace, 1763; but by that of 1783, it was reſtored to Spain.

CORSICA.

CORSICA is ſituate one hundred miles ſouth of Genoa, ſixty ſouth-weſt of Leghorn in Tuſcany, and ſeparated from Sardinia by the narrow ſtrait of Bonifacio. It is one hundred and ten miles in length, and fifty in breadth. The face of the country is mountainous, rocky, and covered with wood. The air is pretty good, but the ſoil barren; however, it produces corn and wine enough for the natives, but has very little to traffic with. It was taken from the Saracens by the Genoeſe and Piſans, who divided it between them for ſome time; but at length the Genoeſe expelled the Piſans, and their viceroy is governor of the iſland. The doge of Genoa is crowned at his acceſſion as king of Corſica. The natives were for many years in arms againſt their ſovereigns, the republic of Genoa, for which they aſſigned the tyranny of that government, while the Genoeſe charged them with being a ſeditious factious people. They were not long ſince reduced very low by the emperor of Germany, and afterwards by the French, who ſent ſome forces to the aſſiſtance of the Genoeſe: again they recovered under the ſpirited conduct

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of their general Paoli, and had almoſt driven the Genoeſe out of the iſland; but at length the numerous troops of the French poured in upon them, prevailed; and the iſland is now ſubject to them, as by agreement with Genoa, of which we are not able to ſpecify the conditions.

SARDINIA.

SITUATE about one hundred and fifty miles weſt of Leghorn in Tuſcany, and one hundred and twenty miles north-weſt of Sicily, is one hundred and forty miles in length from north to ſouth, and ſixty miles in breadth from eaſt to weſt. It is prettily diverſified with hills and vallies; the mountains in the north are very high. The climate is warm, and the air not reckoned healthful. The ſoil is very fruitful where it is manured, producing corn, wine, and oil, in great plenty; but the people are ſo indolent, that little improvement is made by them. The Phœnicians and Greeks firſt ſent colonies to this iſland, and erected ſeveral ſmall ſtates, as they had done in the ſouth of Italy and Sicily. The Carthaginians ſucceeded them, and had almoſt the dominion of the whole iſland. The Romans diſpoſſeſſed the Carthaginians. The Saracens invaded it in the eighth century, as they did Naples and Sicily. The republics of Genoa and Piſa recovered part of the iſland from them. Pope Boniface took upon him to tranſfer the iſland to the king of Arragon, who ſubdued the Genoeſe, Piſans, and the reſt of the inhabitants, and annexed it to his own dominions; and it remained united to the crown of Spain till the allies made a conqueſt of it in 1708, and it was allotted to the emperor at the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. The Spaniards recovered it in 1717, but were obliged to abandon it two years after, when it was conferred on the duke of Savoy, in lieu of the kingdom of Sicily, in 1719. The preſent king of Sardinia is now ſovereign of this iſland, the revenues of which ſcarce exceed the charges of the government.

SICILY,

DIVIDED from Italy by the narrow ſtrait of Meſſina, which is not ſeven miles over. This iſland is one hundred and ſeventy miles in length, and one hundred in breadth. It lies in a warm climate, but the air is healthful, being refreſhed by ſea-breezes on every ſide. Both hills and vallies are exceeding fruitful, no country producing more corn, wine, oil, and ſilk, in proportion to its dimenſions; from

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from whence old Rome was principally ſupplied with proviſions when it abounded with people. The ſilk, raw or manufactured, with the other produce of the iſland, are exported in large quantities from Meſſina, where a conſul from almoſt every nation in Europe reſides, to manage and protect the trade of his nation; and, of late years, the Sicilians have traded with Turkey, and the coaſt of Barbary, which they never did before their late king don Carlos aſcended the throne. The moſt noted of the mountains in this iſland is that of Ætna, now called Gibello, a terrible vulcano, ſituate in the province of Val Demona. This mountain is ſixty miles in circumference, and, at the top, there is a baſon of burning ſulphur ſix miles round, from whence ſometimes iſſue rivers of melted minerals that run down into the ſea. The hill is ſo high, that, round the baſon, there is a circle of ſnow great part of the year. Before any great eruption there is generally an earthquake. The port-town of Catania was overturned by an earthquake in 1693, and eighteen thouſand people periſhed by it. Syracuſe, once the greateſt city of the iſland, has been ſo often demoliſhed by earthquakes, that very little of it remains at preſent.

LIPARI ISLANDS.

THERE are eight ſmall iſlands, which lie near the north coaſt of Sicily, to which the inhabitants give the name of Æoliæ and Vulcaniæ, feigned by the poets to be the ſeats of Æolus and Vulcan, the chief of which is Lipari, from whence they are uſually called the Lipari Iſlands. Two of them are volcanoes, as Strombolo and Hiera. The ſmall iſlands of Levanzo, Maritima, and Favagnana, lie at the weſt end of the iſland. Sicily was alſo called Trinacria, from its triangular form. The Greeks and Carthaginians divided it between them, but were both ſubdued or expelled by the Romans, who reduced it into the form of a province. It followed the fortune of Italy in its ſeveral revolutions, until the Sicilian veſpers in 1282, when the natives maſſacred their French maſters, who had then the dominion of it. The French were ſucceeded by the Spaniards until the year 1707, when they were driven from thence by the imperialiſts; and, at the peace of Utrecht, this iſland was allotted to the duke of Savoy, with the title of king. The Spaniards invaded it in 1718, but were forced to abandon it again; and then it was conferred on the late emperor Charles VI. who held it till the

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year 1735, when the imperialists were driven out of this island, and of all their Italian dominions; and don Carlos, the king of Spain's eldest son, by the princess of Parma his second queen, was advanced to the throne of Naples and Sicily, which were confirmed to him by the subsequent peace, on condition of his relinquishing Milan, Parma, and all the rest of the emperor's Italian dominions, which the Spaniards and French had taken from him in that war.

MALTA, formerly MELITA,

SITUATE in 55 deg. east longitude, and 35 deg. 15 min. north latitude, sixty miles south of Cape Passaro in Sicily, is of an oval figure, twenty miles long and twelve broad. The air is clear and healthful, but excessive hot, when not cooled by the sea-breezes. The island is all a white soft rock, covered with a foot of good vegetable earth, producing great quantities of cotton, indigo, oranges, lemons, olives, figs, and other fruits, with great plenty of pulse and other garden-stuff; but very little corn or wine, with which the inhabitants are supplied chiefly from Sicily; nor have they any wood, except fruit-trees, on the island. The town of Malta, or Valetta, is magnificently built, strongly fortified, and has an excellent harbour. Charles V. emperor of Germany and king of Spain, gave it to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem in 1530, whose predecessors distinguished themselves in the defence of the Holy Land, and the protection of the pilgrims who resorted thither. When the Christians were driven out of the Holy Land by the Saracens, these knights retired to Cyprus. They afterwards took the island of Rhodes from the infidels, and defended it against all their power for two hundred years; and then, surrendering it upon honourable terms, retired to Malta; and when Solyman, the Turkish emperor, invaded Malta, they obliged him to abandon the island, after he had lost twenty thousand men before their walls. These knights consist of seven several Roman Catholic nations, and are all of ancient noble families. The grand-crosses, as they are called, are the heads of each nation, and are styled grand-priors. Each of them has his convent of knights, and they have estates, or commanderies, in the respective nations to which they belong. These priors elect a grand-master, who is the chief commander in the island. They have a squadron of men of war, and land-forces,

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forces, and are engaged in a perpetual war againſt the Turks, Algerines, and other Mohammedan powers. The knights make vows of celibacy and chaſtity; notwithſtanding which every man keeps as many concubines as he pleaſes, who are, for the moſt part, Grecian beauties, which they take in the iſlands of the Archipelago, ſubject to Turkey.

There are ſeveral other ſmall iſlands on the coaſts of Italy, particularly near Naples and Tuſcany, the chief of which are Capri, Iſchia, Procita, Ponza, Giglio, Elba, Pianoſa, Capraria, Gorgona, and Maloria. Of theſe Capri is much taken notice of for its noble ruins. It is ſituate at the entrance of the gulf of Naples, about three miles from the continent, being about four miles long, and one broad. This was the reſidence of the emperor Auguſtus for ſome time, and afterwards of Tiberius for many years. The moſt conſiderable ruin ſtands at the extremity of the eaſtern promontory where there are ſtill ſeveral apartments left, very lofty, and arched at the top. Some years ago there was diſcovered a paved road, running under ground from the top of the mountain to the ſea-ſide. What recommended this iſland to Tiberius was the temperate healthful air, being warm in winter, and cool in ſummer, and its inacceſſible coaſt, which is ſo very ſteep, that a ſmall number of men may defend it againſt an army. And here it is conjectured that emperor had different reſidences, according to the different ſeaſons of the year. The whole iſland was cut out into eaſy aſcents, adorned with palaces, and planted with as great a variety of groves and gardens as the ground would admit; and the works under ground were more extraordinary than thoſe on the ſurface; for the rocks were all undermined with highways, grottos, galleries bagnios, and ſubterraneous retirements, which ſuited the brutal pleaſures of that emperor, and were afterwards demoliſhed by the Romans, in deteſtation of the unnatural and laſcivious ſcenes which had been acted there. The reſt of the iſlands on this coaſt do not merit a particular deſcription; neither do the iſlands in the Adriatic and Ionian Sea, four of which, as Lieſina, Corfu, Cephalonia, and Zant, are ſubject to Venice; but Leucadia belongs to the Turks.

Iſlands

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Iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO.

THE principal iſlands of the Archipelago, or the Egean and Levant ſeas, are,

1. NEGROPONT, the ancient Eubæa, ſtretching from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, along the eaſtern coaſt of Achaia, or Livadia, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow channel, called the Euripus. The iſland is ninety miles long, and twenty-five broad in the wideſt part. Before the chief town of the ſame name, there uſually lies a fleet of Turkiſh gallies, and the captain-baſſa, or admiral of the Turkiſh fleet, is viceroy of this iſland, and the adjacent continent of Greece. The iſland abounds in corn, wine, and fruit; but, what is moſt taken notice of, is the uncommon tides in the Euripus, or ſea between the iſland and the continent. Theſe are ſometimes regular, and at others irregular, according to the age of the moon; from the three laſt days of the old moon to the eighth of the new, they are regular; on the ninth day they begin to be irregular, and flow twelve, thirteen, or fourteen times in twenty-four hours, and ebb as often.

2. LEMNOS, or Stalimene, is ſituate on the nort part of the Archipelago, of a ſquare form, twenty-five miles in length of each ſide, about ſeventy miles ſouth of Mount Athos, on the continent of Greece. It produces plenty of corn and wine, but its principal riches ariſe from a mineral earth, called terra Lemnia and ſigillata, from a ſeal the Turks put upon every parcel that is ſold to foreigners; it is ſaid to have great virtues in healing wounds, expelling poiſon, ſtopping fluxes, &c.

3. CIO, or CHIOS, lies near the weſt coaſt of Ionia in Leſſer Aſia, about eighty miles weſt of Smyrna, and is about a hundred miles in circumference. It is a rocky mountainous country, not a river or ſpring in it, and no corn but what is brought from Candia, or the continent of Aſia. They have wine in great plenty, which is reckoned the beſt in Greece, with oil and ſilk; and they have manufactures of ſilk, velvet, gold, and ſilver ſtuffs. Their moſt profitable plant is the lentiſk-tree, from which the gum called maſtic iſſues, the profit whereof the government in a manner monopolizes, obliging the natives to ſell it to their agents at what price they pleaſe to ſet upon it. This iſland is populous, the inhabitants conſiſting of Turks, Latins, and Greeks, being computed at near four hundred and twenty thouſand. The

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Greeks are the moſt numerous. Their women are reckoned the greateſt wits, as well as beauties, in this part of the world.

4. SAMOS, is ſituate near the coaſt of the Leſſer Aſia, almoſt oppoſite to Epheſus, ſcarce ſeven miles from the continent, being about thirty miles long, and fifteen broad. A chain of mountains runs through the middle of this iſland, being of white marble, but covered with a ſtaple of good earth, producing wine, oil, pomegranates, ſilk, fruit-trees, and other plants. The muſcadine wine is much admired; there is alſo fine wool which the French purchaſe. Here are great remains of antiquity, particularly the ancient city of Samos, and of Juno's temple, patroneſs of the iſland. Tournefort ſays, there is nothing in the Levant to compare to them; abundance of marble pillars, which once ſupported temples or porticos, lie neglected by the Turks.

5. PATMOS, lies north of Samos, and is about twenty miles round. It is one of the moſt barren iſlands in the Archipelago, full of rocks and ſtony mountains, without trees or herbage, and not a river or ſpring in the iſland, which is not dry in ſummer; but the haven of Scala is one of the moſt commodious ports in the Mediterranean: the convent of St. John is ſituated three miles ſouth of Scala; the building called the Hermitage of the Apocalypſe, depending on the convent, has a very mean appearance; the chapel is about eight paces long and five broad; on the right of it is St. John's grotto, the entrance of which is ſeven feet high, with a ſquare pillar in the middle; in the roof they ſhew a crack in the rock through which, according to their tradition, the Holy Ghoſt dictated the Revelations which St. John wrote in his baniſhment, which happened in the reign of Domitian, A. D. 95.

6. RHODES is ſituate twenty miles ſouth-weſt of the continent of the Leſſer Aſia, and is about fifty miles long, and twenty-five broad. It abounds in good wine, fruit, and all manner of proviſion but corn, which is imported from the neighbouring continent. At the mouth of the harbour of Rhodes, which is fifty fathom wide, ſtood the coloſſus of braſs, eſteemed one of the wonders of the world, one foot being placed on one ſide of the harbour, and the other foot on the other ſide, ſo that ſhips paſſed between its legs; the face of the coloſſus repreſented the ſun, to whom this image was dedicated; the height of it was ſeventy cubits (about a hundred and thirty-

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thirty-five feet) and it held in one hand a light-house for the direction of mariners. The Rhodians were once the moſt conſiderable naval power in the Mediterranean, and inſtituted laws for the regulation of navigation and commerce, called the Rhodian laws, by which maritime cauſes were decided in all the provinces of the Roman empire. The knights of St. John of Jeruſalem being obliged to retire from Paleſtine, invaded this iſland, and took it from the Turks about the year 1308, and defended it againſt all the power of that empire till the year 1522.

7. CANDIA, the ancient Crete, about two hundred miles long and ſixty broad, is almoſt equally diſtant from Europe, Aſia, and Africa. There are no conſiderable rivers in the iſland; Lethe is one of the largeſt ſtreams. Mount Ida covers the middle of the iſland, and is, for the moſt part, a barren rock, ſcarce any tree or herbage upon it; but the vallies are full of vineyards, olive-yards, myrtles, laurels, oranges, and lemons, intermixed with other fruits, and fine corn-fields; their wines, both white and red, are exquiſitely good. The city of Candia, or Mutium, the capital, is ſituate on a bay of the ſea, about the middle of the north ſide of the iſland, and was once a good harbour, but is at preſent choaked up. The ſiege of this city is famous in hiſtory; the Turks inveſted it in the beginning of the year 1645, and the garriſon having held out till the latter end of September, 1669, ſurrendered at laſt upon honourable terms, after they had been ſtormed fifty-ſix times. The Venetians loſt upwards of eighty thouſand men, and the Turks above a hundred and eighty thouſand, during the ſiege.

8. CYPRUS lies oppoſite the coaſt of Syria and Paleſtine, from which it is not above thirty miles diſtant. It is about a hundred and fifty miles long, and ſeventy broad, and is ſuppoſed to have obtained the name of Cyprus, from the great number of cypreſs trees in it. The air is hot, dry, and not very healthful. The ſoil produces corn, wine, oil, cotton, ſalt, wool, and ſome ſilk. The traffick of the inhabitants is very conſiderable, and conſuls from almoſt every European nation reſide here. The chief town is Nicoſia, the ſeat of the Turkiſh viceroy, and formerly the reſidence of its kings. The chief mountain bears the name of Olympus, of which name there are ſeveral more in Turkey. Here are no ſprings or rivers but ſuch as are produced by the annual rains. This iſland, anciently dedicated to Venus, has been under the domi-

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nion of the Egyptians, Phœnicians, Perſians, Greeks, Romans, Saracens, Venetians, and Turks. Richard I. king of England, meeting with an unhoſpitable reception here, ſubdued the iſland, and transferred his right of it to Guy Luſignan, titular king of Jeruſalem, whoſe deſcendents transferred it to the ſtate of Venice, from whom the Turks took if in the year 1570, and have ever ſince remained in poſſeſſion of it. While it was in the hands of the Chriſtians it was well peopled, having eight hundred or a thouſand villages; but it is ſo thinly inhabited at preſent, that half the lands lie uncultivated. The preſent inhabitants are Turks, Jews, Greeks, Armenians, and ſome few Latin Chriſtians; but the Greeks are much the moſt numerous.

Beſides theſe iſlands, ſeveral others were formerly of ſome note, as Tenedos, Skyros or Scirio, Leſbos or Mytelene, Delos in the center of the Cyclades, which are about fifty in number, Paros, and Cytherea. Santorini, which is one of the ſouthermoſt iſlands in the Archipelago, of about thirty-five miles in circumference, is a kind of pumice-ſtone rock, covered over with about a foot of earth, raiſed out of the ſea by a volcano, as were two or three other ſmall iſlands near it: Santorini firſt appeared in the year 1707. The volcano which formed this iſland, was preceded, in the adjacent iſlands, by violent convulſions of the earth, followed by a thick ſmoke which aroſe out of the ſea in the day-time, and flames of fire in the night, accompanied with a dreadful roaring noiſe under ground, like thunder, or the firing of great guns.

END OF THE THIRTY-SEVENTH VOLUME.

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